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ABSTRACT

The monograph addresses, from an Australian perspective, strategies to help disabled youth make the transition from school to work. The first chapter discusses underlying philosophy and principles (normalization, independent living, self-determination, the role of education in the transition process, and the role of work in adult living). Issues for analysis in the process of transition are discussed in Chapter 2 and include definitions and degrees of handicap, options on leaving regular or special schools, alternatives to competitive employment, youth traineeships, promotion of more flexible working arrangements, parent and community involvement, and personnel preparation. Chapter 3 looks at transitional program strategies at the school level, at the tertiary level of training, and at the level of community living and vocational placement. Over half the monograph contains brief program descriptions of innovative transition programs in Australia, some established by government agencies but most arising from community efforts. A final section provides commentaries of three Americans: G. T. Bellamy, D. Brolin, and M. Peterson. (DB)

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BRIDGES FROM SCHOOL TO WORKING LIFE FOR HANDICAPPED YOUTH: THE VIEW FROM AUSTRALIA

by Trevor R. Parmenter
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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
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Preface

This monograph addresses, from an Australian perspective, a number of strategies which should enhance the opportunities of young people with disabilities for a more satisfying and productive adult life. These strategies will essentially refer to that period during which these young people are moving from secondary school, through a period of tertiary training and, subsequently, onto some form of vocational activity.

Chapter One discusses the philosophy and goals which should underpin the programs designed for this period in their lives. This is followed by a discussion of some common problems which need to be overcome. Chapter Three proposes a number of strategy options in the educational, community living and vocational areas of program development. Finally, a number of key recommendations are made for future directions. The Appendix contains a brief description of a number of transition programs.

Acknowledgement is made of the assistance I was given in the preparation of this monograph by my membership of the Australian Steering Committee of the OECD/CERI Project on Handicapped Youth in Transition, and my participation in a National Workshop held in June, 1985.

While I had access to a number of OECD/CERI documents on this topic, the views expressed in this monograph are my own and do not necessarily reflect the policies of CERI.

The patient help given by Mrs. Pam Auld who typed the manuscript is deeply appreciated.

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CHAPTER ONE

Underlying Philosophies and Principles

In building bridges from school to working life for young people with disabilities there are at least three principles upon which the plans or strategies ought to be based. They are the principles of normalization, independent living and self-determination.

Normalization

In his most recent formulation of the principle Nirje (1985, p. 67) suggests:

> The normalization principle means making available to all persons with a disability or other handicaps, patterns of life and conditions of everyday living which are as close as possible to or indeed *the same as* the regular circumstances and ways of life of society.

Nirje makes explicit the need for the person with a disability to experience the normal rhythms of life and patterns of culture in any given environment. For instance, the person with a disability should experience the normal rhythm of the day, the week, the year and the normal experiences of the life cycle. He also stresses their need for normal respect, economic and environmental standards, and an appreciation that it is normal to live in a heterosexual world.

These eight components of the normalization principle provide a firm basis for the practice of integration. Nirje, happily, proceeds beyond the mere physical dimensions of integration, for he stresses its intrinsic meaning; the fact that integration allows one "to be yourself among others—to be allowed and to be able to be yourself among others" (personal communication). One aspect of this process is the development of personal integration which, Nirje suggests, "is related to the developing and changing needs for personal interaction with significant persons" (Nirje, 1980, p. 48). For instance, if a person with a disability is unable or prevented from moving from his/her parental home, there is a subsequent loss of the opportunity for obtaining a significant level of personal integration, just as there would be if marriage were also prevented.

In the context of the transition process it is important to appreciate that one of the most important outcomes of the normalization principle is the participation of a person with a disability in his/her culture. Above all the central feature of the principle is normal respect for the integrity of the individual. Nirje neatly operationalizes the concept,

> ... the normalization principle means that you are right when you let the handicapped person obtain the same or as close as possible to the same conditions of life as you would prefer if you were in his situation (1985, p. 67).

This principle, therefore, has profound implications for the way we set goals and design educational, vocational and community living programs for young adults with disabilities.

Independent living

In an earlier monograph Parmenter (1980) describes the principle of independent living as follows:

> 'Independent Living' has emerged as possibly the most dynamic development in the area of the disabled since the popularization of the normalization principle . . . in its most recent form the independent living movement is seen as "an emerging social movement" (De Jong, 1978) or as "a civil rights movement" (Roberts, 1977), being firmly based in the ideological commitment society has towards consumer sovereignty, self-reliance and political and economic rights (p. 43).

Further, Stoddard's (1978) summary of the dimensions of independent living is still quite relevant:

> When those active in the disabled movement use the term "independent living" they are referring to their ability to participate in society—to work, have a home, raise a family, and generally share in the joys and responsibilities of community life. "Independent living" means freedom from isolation or from the institution; it means the ability to choose where to live and how; it means the person's ability to carry out activities of daily living that nondisabled people often take for granted (p. 2).

Thus the concept extends far beyond the provision of aids for daily living—its most potent aspects are its psychological dimensions such as the scope which a person with disabilities has for making his/her own decisions. It is suggested that one of the most important goals of the transition process is to equip the young person with a disability with the skills of making informed decisions. However, as De Jong (1981) points, out the barriers to the achievement of independent living often reside more in the environment than in the person with a disability.

Self-determination

Together with the physical and psychological dimensions of independent living, the right to self-determination is one of the key features of adult status. In a working paper prepared for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) study of the education of the handicapped adolescent, Mrs. Anne Benard suggests that becoming an adult requires:

- leaving the protective environment of childhood.
- accepting one's limitations and believing in one's potential.
- discovering the world of work, economic, technological and social realities.
- discovering the skepticism and lack of information given by employers and colleagues.
- developing personal independence and enriching and fulfilling oneself in contact with others.

She suggests further that occupational integration is one of the most important aspects of social integration. Working gives one financial independence, awareness of one's value to society, self-enhancement and fulfill-

ment, and creates a network of relationships.

But these are not easy goals to achieve even for young people without a disability.

Nirje (1972) notes,

> To assert oneself with one's family, friends, neighbours, co-workers, other people, or *vis-a-vis* an agency is difficult for many persons. It is especially difficult for someone who has a disability. . . But in the end, even the impaired person has to manage as a distinct person, and thus has his identity defined to himself and to others. . .Thus, the road to self-determination is indeed both difficult and all-important for a person who is impaired (p. 177).

While the following statements cited by Nirje (1972) may appear dated to those who are familiar with self-advocacy groups such as "People First" (North America) and "Reinforce" (Victoria, Australia), there is, nevertheless, in many parts of the world and, indeed, in the aforementioned continents, a strong resistance by many parts of society to recognize the rights to self-determination of young people with disabilities.

> "We want to choose our vocations ourselves and have influence over our education."
>
> "We demand more information about our handicaps and our job prospects."
>
> "We want to have leisure time together with other (young) adults of the same age."
>
> "We wish to have an apartment of our own, and not be infantilized."
>
> "We think that we should be present when our situation is discussed by doctors, teachers, welfare workers, foremen, etc."

Of course, simply providing the structures within which independent decisions may be made is not enough. A central focus of all education and training programs should be upon those personal, social and communication skills which will enhance the competence of young persons with a disability to assert themselves appropriately and coherently.

The role of education in the transition process

In addressing the educational needs of adolescent and young adults with disabilities educational systems have rarely come to grips with the specific structural, instructional and curriculum needs of this group. Structurally the solution was often an extension of the segregated special school or special class facility provided for the younger child. Too often the adolescent and young adult remained in the *same* facility as the younger disabled pupils. Latterly, with the advent of educational programs for students with severe handicaps being more community-referenced, the concept of the *criterion of ultimate functioning* (Brown, *et al.*, 1977) has had an impact upon the way special education programs are being delivered. Increasingly schools are planning and carrying their programs out in community settings.

Despite a considerable body of research evidence and large numbers of exemplary projects demonstrating the effectiveness of a variety of instruc-

tional and pedagogical techniques, personnel employed to teach students with various learning disabilities are relatively slow to adopt new techniques or to question the appropriateness of the techniques they are using. While individual educational programs are either mandatory or highly recommended, the bottom line is the degree of effectiveness of the instructional techniques in producing desirable educational outcomes.

The "eternal child" syndrome has had a profound effect upon the way curriculum has been designed for the older student with disabilities. As the traditional special education perspective has not been future-oriented, teachers have generally based their instructional objectives upon the students' performance on a range of assessment and diagnostic tests. They have not related that performance to the need to adapt to future settings and future needs. Consequently, suggest Rusch and Mithaug (1985) handicapped students tend to see themselves for ever as service recipients rather than service providers. For instance, they point out,

> The role expectations of such persons become embodied in a host of dependent behaviors, most of which involve the receiving of assistance frequently, if not continuously, from those primarily in the roles of teacher, parent, physical therapist, occupational therapist, speech pathologist, nurse, and psychologist ... Teachers, parents and others expect the ... handicapped student to be dependent—that is, *acted* upon by others rather than *acting* upon on his or her own. Consequently, this student rarely acquires new roles ... It is not surprising that these students seem more childlike than adultlike (p. 179)

The problem usually commences within the primary and elementary grades, as teachers try to adapt the traditional academically oriented curriculum to meet the "needs" of the handicapped student. A more contemporary approach to special education, suggest Rusch and Methaug (1985), recognizes the social settings or social systems in which individuals perform functions or roles in prescribed ways. For instance, the foundations of career education can be laid down in the early elementary grades (Brolin & Kokaska, 1979). Above all, special education programs should be future-based and ecologically valid. Rusch and Methaug (1985) suggest that,

> Too rarely do special educators consider the role changes that accompany the ... handicapped students' growth and development in community integration. Focussing, instead, upon present levels of dependency, special educators must *anticipate* the significant life cycle changes that contribute to the increased independence and self-initiative that are necessary to achieve goals (p. 182).

Further, they point out that,

> A contemporary special education approach must consider an individual's needs throughout his or her life span (p. 185).

The role of work in adult living

From an international perspective this is a contentious issue. At a simplistic level of analysis there is a polarization between the view which

suggests that owing to high levels of young unemployment, particularly in industrialized economies, the goal of paid employment for disabled people is unrealistic; and the view which assets that *every* person has the right to paid employment, including the most severely disabled person. This view is supported by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, promulgated in the UN General Assembly in 1948, which states: "Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of employment, as well as protection against joblessness."

The former view tends to be supported by Paul Cornes who, in his keynote paper presented to the International Symposium on Economics and Equity in Employment of People with Disabilities (Habeck *et al.*, 1985), suggested that we should examine contemporary changes in the nature, organization and meaning of work. In particular he urges us to consider that with the emergence of a post-industrial society there is a case for looking for alternatives to the traditional forms of employment for disabled people. Cornes argues that current thinking is based on the premises of continued economic growth in the industrialized countries—a phenomenon, he suggests, that is unlikely to continue. At this Symposium there was a clear division between those participants who favoured an "economic" approach to the issue and those who were drawn more to a socializing viewpoint where an emphasis would be placed upon government-funded income support mechanisms for all people.

Corne's position is certainly worthy of consideration and it would be foolish to dismiss his warning that we must take a proactive, future-oriented approach to policy planning towards the habilitation and rehabilitation of disabled people, rather than the current approaches which have been more reactive. At the same time we must not go overboard by an over-simplified compliance with the view that competitive paid work is out of the reach of disabled people. We should seek to have young people with disabilities represented in the labour market to *at least* the same extent as young people without a disability. At the same time we should be investigating labour market changes so that future policies may be formulated on a sounder base than hunches or rhetoric. Above all it would seem inadvisable for us to support the notion that people with disabilities must be at the forefront of the social revolution to alternative forms of life activity to traditional work.

There are already a number of alternatives emerging, such as work cooperatives, shared work, part-time work, etc., in which groups of people with disabilities are already participating. Similarly, societies are examining ways of helping people to utilize increasing amounts of leisure time. In keeping with the principles of normalization and integration people with disabilities need to share in these activities to the same extent as those without disabilities.

While Rusch and Mithaug (1985) certainly emphasize competitive

employment as the current goal for severely handicapped students, their system-analytic approach to transition education has much merit as a basis for formulating relevant, future oriented vocational training programs for all young disabled people, particularly as they insist that "... programs must be based on an examination of the social contexts in which the student is a participant and of those in which he or she will be a participant" (p. 183). Therefore, as societal and economic situations change so, too, must our transition programs and goals.

Role of community living programs, and social and interpersonal networks

Halpern (1985) has pointed out rather cogently that in considering the issue of transition one should look beyond the vocational dimensions of adult adjustment. Rather than seeing employment as the primary goal of the transition process, Halpern proposes that "community adjustment" or living successfully in one's community should be the central focus of transitional services. In his adaptation of the OSERS (Will, 1984) transition model Halpern suggests that the goal of community adjustment is achieved through a combination or integration of a satisfactory residential environment, an adequate social and interpersonal network and satisfactory vocational opportunities. Evidence is presented which suggests that a focus upon a vocational goal alone will not necessarily lead to adequate adjustment in the other dimensions.

Obviously the OSERS model is an attempt to break the nexus between the concept of "pre-vocational" training for severely disabled people and subsequent employment opportunities. This had led, particularly for people with severe intellectual disabilities, to life-long training in social skills with the expectation that an improvement in these skills will eventually prepare them for later vocational training. While this type of thinking has locked many people into "eternal" pre-vocational programs, it would be a mistake to generalize this to all young disabled people. The bulk of people with mild intellectual disabilities and those with physical or sensory disabilities can benefit from the more traditional pre-vocational model, although there must be opportunities for recurrent education and vocational support mechanisms throughout the life of a person with disabilities.

A key recommendation of a recent report by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (OECD/CERI, 1985) is that we should not lose sight of the individual when planning services for those who are handicapped. For instance, in her introduction to the report, Patricia Rowan suggests:

> Administrators and professionals need criteria, categories and defined fields of operation but each individual's response to a disability is unique. There is always tension between systems and procedures and the optimum programme for meeting personal needs. International co-operation in the field of education, vocational

preparation and social services for those who are disabled is often dominated by the former and too little attention is paid to the consumer (p. 12).

Thus there is a real danger in developing transition models which are too narrowly-based and which attempt to encompass all levels of handicap.

At least for those with mild disabilities there is abundant evidence (e.g. Brolin, 1972; Brolin *et al.*, 1975; Cobb; 1972; Edgerton, 1967, 1984; Edgerton & Bercovici, 1976; Edgerton *et al.*, 1984; Riches, 1979; Ward *et al.*, 1985) that a lack of social and interpersonal skills is a major factor in their loss of jobs. Therefore, especially for those disabled young people who are seeking jobs in competitive employment, social and interpersonal skills training is an important ingredient of a transition program. This is not to deny the validity of Gold's (1973) "competency-deviance" hypothesis which asserts that many of the deviant behaviors of people with intellectual disabilities are the direct result of stultifying work and living environments. Nevertheless, many young people with disabilities, owing to a combination of learning difficulties and an inadequate program, reach adolescence and adulthood with severe communication, social and interpersonal skills deficits. Of course, such training should be carried out as far as possible in natural environments, particularly if the learning difficulties of the young people are severe. Here the "catalogue of activities" approach advocated by Wilcox and Bellamy (1982) is quite appropriate.

Community-living skills training is also a key dimension of the community adjustment model. While a young person's level of adjustment here may be unrelated to his/her vocational success, they can be interdependent if either situation proves punishing. For instance, if a young person has few financial management skills which result in his/her being unable to pay the rent or make periodic credit payments, there is a high probability that this will affect his/her employment. This will be all the more evident if the person cannot handle the emotional upheavals that often result from mismanaged finances. In terms of the successful correlates of semi-independent living, Halpern *et al.* (1985) found that money management was the hardest thing people with mild disabilities found about living semi-independently.

Of crucial importance, too, are support and social networks. One of the reasons that people with disabilities often do not integrate effectively into the wider community is their experience of loneliness and rejection. Employees in sheltered workshops who have spent time in competitive employment and who have returned to the sheltered environment often give their lack of friends in the general community as their reason for returning (Parmenter & Knox, 1985). Among the current impediments to the effective integration of disabled people into the least restrictive environment, identified by Lakin and Bruininks (1985), is the lack of social, leisure, and recreational programs. It is not unexpected, then, that many disabled young people and their parents find a security in those organizations which provide "comprehen-

sive," yet segregated work, residential and social programs. There is a strong challenge for us to make these facilities available via generic community services. However, if community acceptance is not forthcoming and if support networks, including formal and informal advocacy programs, are unavailable, young people with disabilities will continue to feel rejected, lonely, second-class citizens.

Principles and values

A recent report of the Handicapped Persons' Program Review, entitled *New Directions* (1985), indicates that the following specific outcomes are most important for consumers with disabilities:

- a place to live;
- paid employment;
- being competent and self-reliant;
- participating in community activities;
- feeling secure;
- having choices in life; and
- having an image which is regarded positively by other people.

It is held that the focus of all government activity should be on the achievement of positive consumer outcomes. As part of this, new legislation concerning programs for people with disabilities should state clearly that what consumers want should be the basis of program development. Achievement of all such programs should be rated regularly against the standard of what outcomes consumers have identified as important.

In conclusion, the following principles are recommended as among those which should underlie the planning and delivery of transition programs:

- All disabled people should have access to appropriate services. This applies equally to disabled youth during the transition period from school to adult life.
- The central focus of the array of services should be the life needs of each young person. The services to meet these needs should be provided, regardless of place of residence, type of disability or other circumstances.
- All services for disabled youth should be provided as part of the community's generic services wherever possible. This applies to educational, training, employment and other support services.
- Services should be provided in a manner which maximizes individual benefits and achievements, and enables a young person with disabilities to move through the transition period in a way which will promote their personal development and autonomy.
- The options and choices in adulthood available to people with disabilities should be the same as those for the community generally.
- Services should support and strengthen the natural consumer/family structures and networks.

CHAPTER TWO

Issues for Analysis in the Process of Transition

There are a number of issues which need to be analysed in order to provide a framework for the development of policies and practices in the area of transition programs. There are three phases to the transitional process: (i) the last years of schooling; (ii) the transitional phase itself; and (iii) entry into employment. Issues concerning these phases to be discussed include: definitions and degree of handicap; options on leaving special or regular schools and implications for integration; the employment objective and alternatives to competitive employment; support incentives and disincentives to competitive employment; continuity and co-ordination; parent and community involvement in transition programs; preparation of personnel and research.

Definitions and degrees of handicap

This paper recognizes the World Health Organization's distinctions between impairment, disability, and handicap. However, as much of the literature in this area uses "disability" and "handicap" interchangeably, and as many people with disabilities tend to see "handicap" as a pejorative label, "people with disabilities" is the preferred option.

Nevertheless, from an analytical perspective the concept "handicap" is very useful, particularly as it is a relative term. Handicapping effects are relative to the person's response to disability, the effectiveness of interventions by services and the situations and circumstances created by local conditions, social institutions and community attitudes. A problem arises, however, when different sectors such as education, health and social welfare, and emloyment use their own definitions.

For instance, in the area of education the severity of the handicap may be expressed in curriculum terms such as the individual student:

(a) Has the ability with technical help, appropriate methodology and specialist teaching to profit from the same curriculum as the majority of students of the same age;
(b) Needs a curriculum covering the same areas of study as the normal curriculum but more limited in its chosen objectives and modified to take account of moderate learning difficulties;
(c) Needs a special curriculum concentrating on self help.

In the employment field the individual can be classified as:

(a) Capable—with training and support of open employment;
(b) Employable—in enclaves or sheltered workshops;
(c) Not capable of open or sheltered employment.

The degree of severity in the health services area relates to the need for

health care, such as the individual:

(a) Does not need regular nursing and medical care;
(b) Needs nursing and medical care to be available for regular supervision and occasional intervention;
(c) Needs regular nursing and medical care on a daily basis.

From a social welfare point of view, a similar approach may be based on severity of need, that is the individual:

(a) Can live independently;
(b) Can live independently with regular support services and supervision;
(c) Needs long-term care and supervision to support limited personal autonomy.

The main issue for consideration is that an individual may be classified differently in each of these areas. For example, a person who has severe difficulties from an educational point of view may be able to live quite independently. Stereotyping an individual by one service sector may contribute to that person developing a negative self-image and self-fulfilling prophecy of failure.There is a clear need for co-ordination and a sharing of information across the various service sectors so that an accurate picture is obtained of the levels of functioning of a person with disabilities.

Options on leaving regular or special schools and implications for integration

Owing to the varying degrees of functional disabilities of young people at the end of their schooling, three broad groups may be identified. These are:

(a) Individuals whose transition to employment, independent living and social competence can be effected satisfactorily by generic services;
(b) Those who require short-term interventions and services to effect their transition;
(c) Those requiring ongoing interventions and services to effect their transition and maintenance within the community.

Consequently young people with disabilities have at least six options on leaving school:

(a) To follow further education or training courses in institutions for all school leavers - a post-school mainstreaming option;
(b) To attend special colleges or vocational training schools for those who are handicapped. In the Australian context there are a small number of Work Preparation Programs conducted by the Department of Community Services for young people with mild intellectual disabilities;
(c) To enter sheltered workshops;
(d) To attend day centres such as Adult Training Centres;

(e) To enter directly open employment;

(f) To remain at home without training or employment.

A key issue for consideration is the degree to which these options can assist in the integration of the young person with disabilities into the community. For instance, the following questions need to be answered:

(a) What should be the main criteria by which to judge whether the process of integration is being actively pursued within the transitional arrangements in a given community?

(b) Are there grounds for accepting that separate, specialized institutions, courses and facilities during transition result in better subsequent employment prospects and societal integration than less specialized arrangements in ordinary post-school institutions?

(c) Is it practicable to conduct specialist courses in regular institutions to at least promote social interaction?

(d) Within the overall aim of providing the maximum access to the higher and further education and training available to all those leaving school, how can special expertise and appropriate supporting services be made more widely available to all post-school institutions?

While in many parts of the world integration of handicapped children into regular schools has been proceeding for some time, there have been few evaluative studies of the effects of these programs have had upon either the child with the disability or the wider school community. Integration may have led to a more general preparation for adult life, including employment and community participation but, owing to lack of skilled or experienced staff to work with particular disabilities, specific preparation for independent living, for employment and for mobility in the community may be more limited (Parmenter & Nash, 1985; Ward *et al.*, in press). Indeed, a comparative study of the effectiveness of a specialized work preparation program for mildly intellectually handicapped adolescents found that this facility had a better track record in effective employment of its graduates than nondisabled peers from a regular high school (Ward *et al.*, 1977). This finding highlights the need for *specific* training in vocational, social and interpersonal skills, not only for disabled people, but also for those nondisabled students who have followed a fairly inappropriate curriculum.

Therefore the following questions may be asked:

(a) Is there any evidence that mainstreaming has increased the social effectiveness and employability of school leavers who are handicapped?

(b) Is preparation for transition in the final years of schooling within the ordinary school sufficiently well-informed and specific to meet different individual transitional needs?

The employment objective and alternatives to competitive employment

This question, as noted above, has both philosophical and practical aspects. One may have a strong philosophical commitment to competitive employment being a reasonable long-term objective for all those who have a disability, including those who are described as severely handicapped, but the reality is that they are competing for jobs when the participation rates of youth generally in the workforce are falling. This is all the more frustrating when well-established demonstration projects show how successfully many multiply and severely handicapped persons can be prepared for competitive employment.

A recent analysis of the Australian youth labor market indicates:

- the ten years to 1983 saw the emergence of an unemployment situation in Australia unparalleled since the depression of the 1930's.
- whereas in the 1950's and 1960's temporary periods of rising unemployment were fully reversed by sustained economic growth over most of the period, in the decade to 1983 this situation was reversed.
- As a result unemployment ratchetted up progressively from 1.8 per cent in 1973 to 10.2 per cent in 1983.
- this buildup of employment over the 10-year period will not be quickly reversed as the growth rate of the nonfarm real GDP would need in long term average terms to rise to at least 3 per cent from the 1½ per cent experienced over the decade merely to stop unemployment rising in the long term.
- even if there were to be a very great improvement in the growth rate (by no means an easy achievement) a return to full employment will not be quick as there is a fairly fine balance (even in years of strong GDP growth) between growth in labor demand and growth in labor supply.
- young people have suffered particularly from this decade-long build up in unemployment.
- the unemployment rate for teenagers was 19.9 per cent in April, 1985; 2.8 times the adult rate of 8.6 per cent, compared to 2.2 times the adult rate in April, 1983.
- these statistics do not take into account the multiple spells of unemployment which particularly afflict young people.

This analysis also addressed the question of why youth are suffering more from slow economic growth. The following factors may be considered:

(i) teenage employment is particularly sensitive to the availability of entry points in the job market for which their lack of experience and qualifications prove less of a disadvantage. These entry point jobs are concentrated in manufacturing and the service sector, including the public sector.

(ii) slow growth has contributed to loss of these entry point jobs,

due to inroads by more experienced labor market participants, including married women who are finding difficulty elsewhere in the labor market. Entry point jobs have also been lost to school leavers because job growth has been heavily concentrated in the service sector for which part-time jobs form a higher ratio of total jobs. There has been an influx of persons *still at school* to take up these part-time jobs.

(iii) the availability of entry level jobs might have been reduced because of the upskilling of jobs due to technological change.

(iv) there has been a reduction in job turnover associated with low economic growth.

(v) there has been a substantial fall in jobs available to teenagers in the public service, in part reflecting the erosion of discrimination against women.

(vi) the rise in youth wages relative to those of adults in the early 1970's, although the evidence is not clear-cut; some reversal of relativities did not prevent a more rapid growth in youth unemployment in subsequent years.

(Dixon, 1985)

A major inquiry into labor market programs, set up by the Australian Federal government (The Kirby Report, 1984), also addresses the issue of full employment.

> From the outset, our thinking has been conditioned by what we see as the strong consensus in the community in favour of a continuing commitment by government to the objective of full employment. The restoration of full employment is still seen as a worthy goal and as the underlying rationale for government intervention in the labour market. No one believes, however, that full employment will be restored in the foreseeable future, or that substantial and sustained advances towards this objective will be achieved easily.
>
> Labour market programs, no matter how extensive or well co-ordinated, are not a panacea for achieving full employment. The links between labour market programs and policies and the achievement and maintenance of full employment are not as strong or direct as many may have thought in the past. Macroeconomic policies have a far more significant influence on the demand for labour, and substantial progress towards restoring the health of the labour market will very much depend on improvements in the economy generally. The potential of labour market programs themselves to increase overall employment is limited. Nevertheless, they can play an important role in assisting those who are most disadvantaged by the failure to achieve full employment.
>
> The diversity and complexity of the tasks confronting those responsible for labour market programs are obvious. Our consultative processes highlighted a strong community expectation that such programs, together with other initiatives, would help to remove the effects of decades of labour market discrimination against certain disadvantaged groups, correct deep-seated occupational segregation and discrimination which adversely affect women's job opportunities, and solve learning problems left after 10 or more years of schooling.(p. 4)

Creation of youth traineeships

Despite its contention that labor market programs, by themselves, will not achieve the objective of full employment, the overall thrust of the recommendations of the Kirby Report is towards coherent training programs for young people who are entering the labor force.

> This leads us to suggest that the most appropriate rationale for labour market policy is to help people control and direct their working and nonworking lives. This implies an approach which focuses on the individual and the individual's needs, and a set of priorities which reflects those measures which can enhance the experience, knowledge and skills of people, and hence their long term employment prospects. The assistance provided should be selected from the total array of programs in a way which best meets the needs of individuals.
>
> This approach will mean a rationalization of existing labour market programs and greater co-ordination between them and related post-secondary education and unemployment benefit programs. It will also necessitate greater discretion for program operators.
>
> Commitment to this approach also leads us to give greater attention to education and training in the mix of labour market programs. An increased emphasis on education and training would also assist employers and the economy by developing a nation's skill base and the capacity of the labour force to adjust.
>
> We have been concerned to note that in recent years the emphasis of Australia's labour market programs has shifted away from training. The major share of expenditure is for private sector wage subsidies and short term public sector job creation. Excluding apprenticeship support, over 70 per cent of the current Department of Employment and Industrial Relations (DEIR) labour market program expenditure is allocated to wage subsidies and short term public sector job creation. R.E. Smith in *Are Targeted Employment and Training Programs in Australia Aimed at the Right Target?* (ANU, Centre for Economic Policy Research, Canberra, 1983) summed up the situation as follows:
>
> > 'The Australian programs are more oriented towards providing immediate employment for members of the target group, rather than increasing their long-term earnings potential.'(p. 15)
>
> We believe that the balance of current expenditure should be changed in favour of an increased share of resources for education and training. The centre-piece of our proposed reforms is the development of a new system of traineeships for young people. We also propose some complementary changes to trade training and associated support arrangements, and to adult training programs.
>
> We strongly urge the adoption of a new strategy for the initial training of young people. We believe that, in due course, the initiative we propose can be developed to meet the training needs of people re-entering the labour market and mature-aged people requiring a second chance. Young people, however, should be the starting point for the reforms because, in our view, it is better to help tomorrow's adults now rather than wait for them to age. Moreover, if the right foundations are laid for young people it will be easier to build a coherent training structure that recognises the interests of all age groups.(p. 6)

Experimental programs

In the area of job creation the Kirby Report made some useful suggestions concerning experimental programs which may help to alleviate the general problem of unemployment and youth unemployment in particular. For instance it notes,

> When considering the need to develop new approached to labour market programs and services, we were struck by the extremely small amounts of current

expenditure allocated to truly experimental programs. As knowledge of what will prove effective in dealing with labour market difficulties is so incomplete and uncertain, it seems necessary to experiment.

Interest was shown during our consultations in the possibilities for government assistance to establish small scale business to develop employment opportunities. Many people referred to the long term potential for employment creation of self-employment, community and co-operative business ventures.

The development of government assistance and support for such ventures has been undertaken only recently, on a small scale, by some State governments. These schemes provide a range of financial, technical, training and advisory assistance to those establishing or expanding worker co-operatives, and assist unemployed people to establish new and small scale business ventures. So far, the Federal Government has not been involved.

There is considerable diversity of approach between States and there have only been modest successes to date. In some other countries with similar local initiatives the failures are more apparent than the successes. However, we believe that successful and worthwhile small scale employment initiatives should be further encouraged, because of their potential to contribute to the attack on high unemployment and to develop for some more satisfying working arrangements. The guiding principle should be the long term viability of the business, and the Federal Government should take the lead in helping States to communicate their experiences in this area.

A major gap in these arrangements has been the provision of income support, that is, an enterprise allowance or wage subsidy for those involved in the initial establishment phase. We were pleased to note that the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations is developing a proposal for an enterprise allowance of an experimental basis. We recognise the need for this additional measure and we believe it will help the Federal Government to become more involved with the State experiments.(p. 8)

Promotion of more flexible working arrangements

Another useful recommendation of the Report is its encouragement of the concept of greater flexibility in working arrangements and a wider range of employment options. It sought to find alternatives to full-time, full year, full working life employment.

We were conscious that attempts to find alternative ways of increasing employment opportunities on a large and cost-effective scale run the risk of 'locking' people into second-rate and unsatisfactory jobs. That outcome would lead only to superficial improvements.

For all the rhetoric on job sharing, the overall reduction that has occured in average hours worked is largely a consequence of increases in part-time employment. Job sharing arrangements, such as converting one full-time job into two or more part-time jobs, are currently operating on a minute scale in the Australian labour market.

While we support the continued search for satisfactory job sharing arrangements, we see far more scope for increased work sharing through promotion of the introduction of permanent, part-time employment which would be based on pro rata conditions of conventional full-time employment.

At certain stages of working life people may find part-time employment a more suitable alternative to working full time. This applies to people who wish to combine employment with education and training, family responsibilities or greater leisure. The key to encouraging more reasonable and flexible employment arrangements, we believe, lies in gaining the support of unions, employers, and government to formal recognition of permanent part-time work as a legitimate form of employment. It is also necessary for tertiary institutions to continually appraise their education programs to cater for permanent part-time employees.(p. 9)

The Federal Government has recently adopted many of the Kirby recommendations into its **Priority One—Young Australia** strategy for young people. Key elements of this strategy are employment training and education (through a system of traineeships), income support and ancillary support services. While people with disabilities will have the right of access to these initiatives; the running down of former specialist services, together with the keeness of the government to project this as a "quality" program, there is a danger that these people will "fall through the cracks" in its implementation. Equal opportunity and affirmative action programs will need to be vigilant to ensure that this does not happen.

A survey of handicapped persons conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (Cameron, 1982) indicates that if we limit our study of labor force participants to those handicapped persons living in private households between the ages of 15 and 64, several observations can be made:

(i) Handicapped persons represented 3.8 per cent of labor force participants, and their labor force participation rate was 39.5 per cent, compared with 70.1 per cent for all persons aged 15 to 64 years.

(ii) The labor force participation rate of handicapped females was 28.4 per cent and of handicapped males, 49.3 per cent.

(iii) The unemployment rate in 1981 of handicapped males was 10.4 per cent compared with 4.8 per cent of all males in the labour force. For all handicapped persons, the unemployment rate was exactly twice that of the population in general.

(iv) The highest level of unemployment of handicapped persons was found among those who had mental disorders, respiratory disease and nervous system disease.

(v) Those with a hearing loss, musculoskeletal disease and sight loss had the highest level of employment amongst those handicapped.

(vi) Nine out of ten handicapped persons reported that they had difficulty in finding work.

(vii) While job availability was the main concern, the most frequently mentioned problems related to the need for modification in the work place or work time.

(viii) A higher proportion of handicapped persons worked part-time than the general population; 26.6 per cent compared with 16.0 per cent.

Participation of handicapped persons in transition education programs

The ABS Survey indicated that, compared with all school children, proportionally fewer handicapped children attending school were enrolled at the secondary level, suggesting that many handicapped students either do

not reach or do not proceed very far through secondary schooling.

It also revealed that 28.2 per cent of handicapped persons 15 to 64 years of age had postsecondary school qualifications compared with 37.7 per cent of the general population. Of the handicapped population with postsecondary school qualifications, 12.0 per cent held a trade or apprenticeship qualification, 11.2 per cent a certificate or a diploma, and 3.1 per cent a bachelor degree or higher qualification, compared with 12.4 per cent, 16.7 per cent and 5.3 per cent of the general population respectively. Lack of qualifications was most evident in the age range of 15 to 24 years.

Clearly, handicapped people of all ages cannot be said to have reasonable equality of educational access and opportunity. This is particularly critical, for ABS data indicate that in 1985 persons who have postsecondary school qualifications had an unemployment rate of only 5.4 per cent, whereas those who did not reach the highest level of secondary school education had an unemployment rate of 12.0 per cent, more than double the first group.

Employer receptivity of workers with disabilities

A 1980 study (Department of Employment and Industrial Relations) indicates a difference between the receptivity patterns of employers who employ blue collar workers and those employing white collar workers. An examination of Fig. 1 shows that at the centre of the bell curve the majority of employers in the blue collar occupations are unaware of people with disabilities. They have never been approached and have never given disabled people any consideration. Towards the sympathetic end of the axis is found a minority of employers employing disabled people. The curve is skewed towards the unfavourable end where we find employers stating that their company offers no opportunity for employment of disabled people.

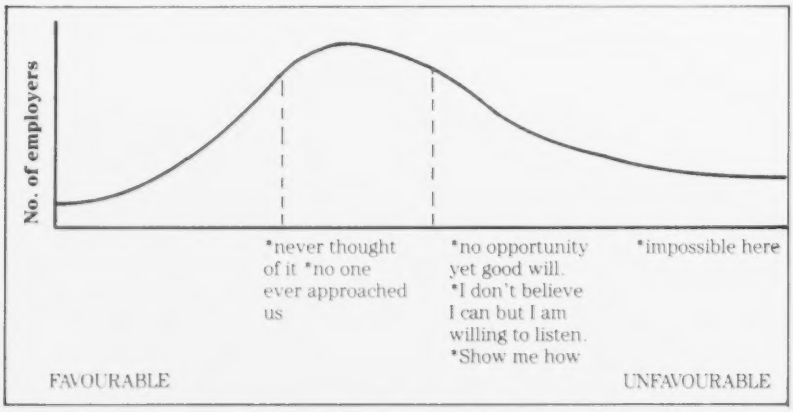
No. of employers
*never thought of it *no one ever approached us
*no opportunity yet good will. *I don't believe I can but I am willing to listen. *Show me how
*impossible here
FAVOURABLE
UNFAVOURABLE

Figure 1: Attitudes of potential employers of disabled people in blue collar employment

On the other hand we find the curve is skewed towards the favourable end in the case of white collar workers (Fig. 2). Again the majority of companies have never been approached and have not had to face the issue.

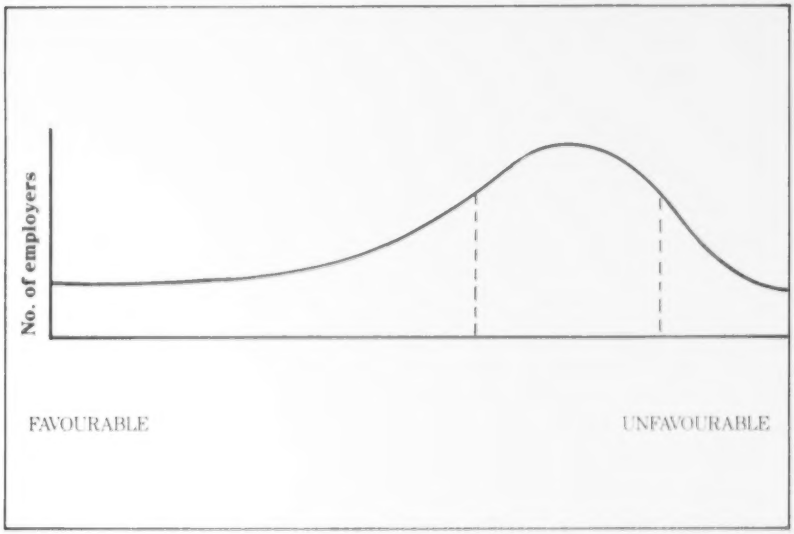

Figure 2: Attitudes of potential employers of disabled people in white collar employment

There were several factors which determined whether companies employed disabled people. In smaller companies the impetus came from the general manager or was made possible by his sympathetic attitudes. In larger companies the origin of employing disabled people was less evident, but reference is made to:

(i) past traditions of employing disabled people.
(ii) overseas connections where parent companies found disabled people satisfactory employers.
(iii) the influence of the personnel manager who had experience in other companies where the practice existed.
(iv) the presence of executives with enthusiasm and a social conscience.
(v) a personal history of a disabled person in a manager's family.

Companies that did not employ disabled people were:

(i) those that were involved in sales rather than manufacturing.
(ii) all those, irrespective of size, that had not been approached by anyone they recognised as a disabled person.

(iii) factory operations which required physical fitness, job rotation, high manual dexterity, or which faced fierce overseas competition.

A recent study of employer receptivity to hiring intellectually disabled young people (Love, 1985) indicates that the most important characteristics sought in those people are:

- an ability to interact with others
- a positive work attitude
- possession of general vocational training

Least important characteristics are:

- possession of formal qualifications
- potential for promotion
- ability to pass a written test

Jobs identified in competitive employment as being suitable for this population included gardening, laboring, packing, process worker, domestic and industrial cleaning and kitchen hands.

Alternatives to competitive employment

From the above analysis it is prudent to assume, at least in the medium-term future, that alternatives to competitive employment will be necessary for some young people, including a proportion who have disabilities. It may be necessary to redefine the concept of work so that forms of unpaid employment are recognised as being legitimate forms of activity which aid in the development of an adult identity and lead to effective community participation. Of course this issue is linked to how far society is willing to go in providing adequate income support mechanisms so that those unable to find paid employment are able to live with dignity.

The need for training people with disabilities in interpersonal, social and recreational skills is also highly relevant. As with mainstreaming at the school level, much work needs to be done in supporting people with disabilities so that they are not simply **IN** the community, but are **OF** the community. The achievement of effective integration will depend upon skill building, the development of support networks and a more accepting community. Obviously these factors are highly interdependent.

Support, incentives and disincentives to competitive employment

While income support mechanisms such as disability pensions, sheltered employment allowances, travel concessions, free or subsidized health care and parent allowances provide a safety net for many handicapped people, they are also a powerful disincentive to competitive employment, or even sheltered employment, particularly if wages earned in competitive employment are lower than the combined social security benefits. Governments in Australia have been unwilling or unable to break this nexus, preferring to have the threshold of earned income above which social secu-

rity benefits are withdrawn quite low. This has had the deleterious effect of keeping the rates of wages in sheltered employment artificially depressed. It has also prevented disabled people, and unemployed youth generally, from pursuing part-time employment.

Incentives to employers in the form of salary subsidies are open to abuse, and there are many documented cases in the files of the Commonwealth Employment Service of persons dismissing handicapped workers once the subsidy is exhausted.

Australia examined the operation of quota systems for the employment of disabled people, but decided to follow an equal opportunity and affirmative action policy instead. In New South Wales there is an Office of the Director of Equal Opportunity in Public Employment who is responsible for ensuring that management plans regarding the employment of women and minority groups are submitted by departments and authorities (including Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education). The plans are reviewed to ensure that they are adequate in conception and implementation. This system is now being extended to management plans for persons with physical and intellectual disabilities. Each NSW government department has established an equal opportunity office, as have many corporations in the private sector.

The Federal Public Service has a policy of equal employment opportunity for disabled workers, and special placement officers examine their needs and take follow-up action. It has also initiated a policy of affirmative action to assist disabled persons in securing permanent employment in government jobs.

Continuity and Coordination

The most serious deficiencies which bedevil the delivery of services to handicapped people are the lack of continuity of services through the various stages of a person's life and the lack of co-ordination between the agencies and professionals which deliver these services. The handicapped person and/or his/her parents so often face a bewildering array of services, both government and nongovernment, many of which seem to be competing for a "part" of the person with a disability. The consumer is either faced on one hand by debilitating rivalry between agencies or by complete apathy or obstructionism on the other. Too seldom is there a person or an agency which will undertake the responsibility of planning and supervising a co-ordinated plan of action. Some organizations providing services to people with severe disabilities provide this type of organization, but it is often in a segregated, self-contained, institutional-type setting. The challenge of effective community integration is the coordination of services at the generic level.

Parent and community involvement in transition programs

One of the features of an adult image is independence from one's

parents. Many parents of young people with disabilities need help to develop their contribution during transition and to make new relationships with their children. While this is the case for all parents, it is particularly crucial for those with children who are handicapped. It is often a painful decision for parents to accept that their handicapped children may need to live independently or semi-independently in the community rather than living permanently at home.

The community, too, needs to be involved in the process of helping young disabled people make the transition to adult status. Communities are often ill-prepared to accept group homes or other residential alternatives and to provide employment opportunities. This is often the case because many communities have no clear approach to integrating those who are handicapped. Different service delivery organizations, as indicated above, often present a uncoordinated or competing approach to the issues and the community is often confused as to its role.

Personnel preparation

One of the most serious deficiencies in the provision of transitional programs is the lack of adequately prepared staff. In special schools and classes teachers have been drawn from the ranks of primary and elementary teachers. Many of those working with secondary-aged students with disabilities have only had teacher training for elementary classes.

Transitional programs require the involvement of personnel from different sectors, such as tertiary education (especially community colleges), employment, social services and health. In many cases these personnel have not been trained to work cooperatively towards the common transition goals. Too often, professionals from each of these sectors have not received specific training in disability issues. Subsequent in-service training programs are usually provided by "in-house" staff who do not provide the comprehensive perspective required.

Currently in Australia this question is addressed in a piece-meal fashion, if at all. Programs are emerging which are consonant with contemporary philosophies and consumer demands, but there is a serious shortfall in adequately trained staff to implement the programs effectively.

Research and evaluation

It is a truism that the life-blood and vitality of a human service is the degree to which the practitioners challenge the effectiveness of that service. The commitment to research and evaluation of transition programs is unfortunately fairly desultory and fragmented. While in the Australian scene there are packets of enterprising work being conducted, these efforts remain isolated and uncoordinated. Given the geographical problems inherent in a large continent with a relatively small population (15 millions), there is a

pressing need for a coordinated research effort as recommended in the report *New Directions*.

Currently, Australia is producing too few people who can provide challenging leadership, both at the research and service delivery levels. The thin veneer of competence of policy planners who have not had the opportunity to undertake rigorous studies of the theory and practice of transitional programs can lead to the acceptance of glib solutions to complex problems.

CHAPTER THREE

Transitional Program Strategies

Introduction

This Chapter makes recommendations which should facilitate the progress of a person with disabilities from the final years of schooling, through a tertiary stage of training to the goals of achieving adult status and effective integration into the community. In terms of a systems model of transition (Parmenter & Fraser, 1980) the *processes* of transition are addressed at each of its stages.

At the school level

Acceptance of responsibility

One of the most critical issues is that the school system must accept its responsibilities for contributing to the transitional stage of the lives of young people with disabilities. There needs to be an awareness of this responsibility at an early stage of the educational process so that the child with the disability, his/her parents and teachers are oriented to the future needs and desires of the child. This awareness will have direct effects upon the curriculum and subtle effects upon the psychological and social development of that child.

In many cases the responsibility of providing transitional programs has been left to special schools and classes. These have been developed in an *ad hoc* manner, often with little support or encouragement from central educational administrations. While there have been many innovative programs developed, there has been no coherent attack on the problem, and no consistent evaluation of what is being practised.

Problems in mainstreamed settings

The greatest deficiency in the area is in regular schools where students with disabilities are being mainstreamed. In those regular schools where special classes have been established there is usually a high turnover in staff with a consequent lack of continuity of programming. Where the students with disabilities attend regular classes they are often disadvantaged, because their teachers are ill-prepared to meet their transitional needs. These schools often lack the physical resources to implement effective programs, and/or they lack skilled advisers who can help them redirect existing under-utilized resources.

Programs in regular high schools that have a good record in meeting the transition needs of students with disabilities usually have the following characteristics:

(i) An energetic, well-trained and well-informed teacher takes responsibility for coordinating the program. This teacher is able to build a good rapport with other members of staff.

(ii) The school principal is committed to the program and provides moral and practical support to the coordinating teacher.
(iii) The coordinator is accepted as an executive member of staff.
(iv) The coordinator is able to foster community relationships—e.g. with other service organizations, employers and community groups.

An example of a highly regarded program is Daramalan College, a high school in the Australian Capital Territory.

Curriculum development

Insufficient attention has been given by educational systems to the development of adequate curricula. All too often the older child with learning problems is forced to follow curricula designed for students who are preparing for an academic career. For the student with disabilities that result from intellectual impairments the curricula should be functionally based, reflecting the skills that are required for effective community adjustment. Research indicates that there should be an emphasis upon communication, social and interpersonal skills.

With more effective service delivery policies curriculum development can proceed on a mutual basis across a number of schools or educational regions. There are a significant number of well-researched curriculum models and materials available for this stage (e.g. Brolin, 1982; Wilcox & Bellamy, 1982), but schools are often slow to adopt them. One of the reasons is the inadequate level of in-service training available for teachers who work at this stage. In Australia there has been a significant reduction in the amount spent on personnel development, despite there being a philosophical commitment to demanding initiatives such as integration programs and to education for those with severe disabilities. Consequently, this has placed enormous strains upon schools and teachers.

Delivery of programs

Programs designed to facilitate community adjustment are at times best carried out in community settings. This is being increasingly recognized by special and regular schools. However, there is not a universal acceptance of this principle as some teachers and administrators view off-school programs with some skepticism, feeling that "real" education must take place in classrooms. Nevertheless, there needs to be a rational approach to the delivery of programs, based upon a clear understanding of the principles of learning. Many skills require systematic training. For instance, Close *et al.* (1985) point out,

> Classroom instruction provides teachers with the opportunity to present rules and examples clearly, to provide students with practice on the response chains associated with each rule, and to offer students corrective feedback. The provision of such instruction in the community is often limited by staff and resource constraints and by the uncontrolled vocabulary that accompanies real-world settings (p. 169).

This does not deny the need, however, for programs to be practised in community settings once acquisition of the skills has been accomplished. It is often not recognized by teachers that many students with disabilities do not learn complex independent living skills by simply being exposed to situations. This is also one of the dangers of unstructured work experience or work study programs.

Development of individual transition plans

Many problems inherent in this stage of the transition process can be lessened by adequate planning for each student. Individual transition plans, drawn up in the early secondary school years can assist in the provision of effective programs to meet current and future needs of the student. Obviously these would need to be regularly reviewed so that strategies can be modified. Overall goals may also need to be modified so that students are not tracked into inappropriate programs. Prediction of ultimate outcomes for these students is a particularly hazardous exercise. These plans need to involve the student, the parents and the various personnel who are responsible for programs, including people outside the school system who may be involved in later stages of the transition process.

In summary, the following strategies are recommended:

(i) Education systems should develop policies which explicitly state the contribution that the system will make to assist young people with disabilities make the transition from school to work and adult life.

(ii) Secondary schools should be provided with sufficient resources, including specially trained teachers, to meet the transitional needs of students with disabilities.

(iii) Curriculum units should be established to help schools translate research programs into practice. Teams of resource personnel who are involved in action-based research programs should be employed to assist in this process.

(iv) Senior secondary school programs should be community referenced, both in the sense of **what** is taught but also **where** it is taught.

(v) Individual transition plans should be established for each student. These must be regularly reviewed and programs adjusted as indicated. The plans should be drawn up by school staff and personnel from those services to which the student may proceed after schooling.

The tertiary level of training

At this stage the young person with disabilities needs to have available an array of options which may include:

(i) postschool education in a regular tertiary education facility,

(ii) postschool training in a specialized facility,
(iii) placement in job with or without part-time training or support,
(iv) placement in a sheltered workshop,
(v) placement in an adult training centre.

Irrespective of what choice is made, this stage should be a natural progression from the school level.

Post-school education in a regular tertiary education facility

For those students with a physical or sensory disability, tertiary facilities such as community colleges, colleges of advanced education and universities are increasingly making adaptations to provide physical access and, to a lesser extent, access to the curriculum. For those who have disabilities which affect learning the picture is not as bright. However, depending upon the level of the disability adaptations can be made in the regular tertiary facilities. For example, in the State of New South Wales special consultants are employed in the community colleges to provide tutorial assistance to students with a disability and to regular staff who may teach the students. In other cases special classes are established or even special units within a college (e.g. Gordon Technical College at Geelong, Victoria).

Post-school training in a specialized facility

A unique Australian development has been the establishment of work preparation programs for young people with mild intellectual disabilities. Two pilot programs were established in 1973/4; and there are now seven. The explicit goal of these programs is to prepare these people for competitive employment, although associated social and interpersonal skills training is also provided. Placement rates have been in the order of 65 per cent, but there is evidence that lack of long-term support has led to poorer job retention rates.

Aided by a university research and program development project there have been some significant spin-offs from this relatively small number of programs:

For instance,

(i) Community colleges have adopted curriculum materials and instructional technologies developed in the work preparation programs.
(ii) Similarly, sheltered workshops have begun to model some of their practices on the work preparation model.
(iii) The work preparation programs' utilization of a variety of training structures—i.e. work enclaves, work crews, job on-site training, has been followed by other transitional programs.
(iv) The practice of program accountability used by the work preparation programs is having a direct effect upon other transition programs.

Placement in a job with or without part-time training or support

There have been some government initiatives in job placement programs. For example, the Federal Department of Employment and Industrial Relations (DEIR) established in the International Year of Disabled Persons an "Open Employment Strategy." It provides assistance in at least three ways:

(i) The provision of specialist staff such as the Disabled Person's Officer and employment counsellors in Employment Offices.

(ii) A Labor Force Program for disabled people, and

(iii) Special programs to generally assist youth entering the workforce.

Within the Labor Force Program for the Disabled, DEIR has established several efforts. **Work preparation programs** are conducted on a fee-for-service basis by community-based agencies. These programs, of which there are currently 15, provide a structured program of assessment, vocational evaluation, vocational and related training, job search, placement and follow-up.

Subsidized employment and apprenticeships in which employers are paid a wage subsidy and employees are paid at least the minimum wage. The subsidy period varies according to the skill level of the job, with a minimum period of 20 weeks and a maximum of 52 weeks. Employers may also be reimbursed up to $2,000 for modifications to the work place or purchase of equipment essential to enable employment to proceed.

Formal training is available to persons formally assessed as disabled who wish to undertake a vocationally oriented course in a field where they are likely to gain employment on graduation. Trainees are paid unemployment benefits plus a training allowance. Course fees and essential equipment up to a maximum of $375 per year are provided.

Retraining through the above listed programs is considered for employed disabled persons who are at risk of unemployment or are forced to change their jobs because of a disability.

At the state government and private sector level similar initiatives are underway. Examples which will be briefly described later are Active Job Services, and Project Employment, both of which help place people with disabilities in employment. In the case of the latter program the young person is provided with support to help him/her maintain the job.

Placement in a sheltered workshop, either for training or permanently

One of the recommendations of the Handicapped Persons Program Review is that the role of sheltered employment be reconsidered. In Australia it may be said that sheltered workshops have an "identity crisis." On one hand they are expected to be training institutions, and yet on the other, they are expected to be viable businesses. Their training role has been untenable because there are very few people with the necessary skills to conduct training programs and, as pointed out earlier, there are no plans or policies

formulated to set up this training. What is generally the case is that employees with disabilities are allocated to jobs which they can *currently* perform. Consequently very few improve their skills, enabling progression to more complex types of jobs.

Obviously there is a place for sheltered employment for certain people with severe disabilities but, at present, the majority of sheltered workshop employees in Australia have only mild disabilities. These, and those with physical disabilities, may be better placed in alternative forms of employment, either competitive or supported. Work cooperatives may be another avenue.

In the case of those with severe disabilities the Benchwork Model of the Specialized Training Program, initiated by Bellamy and colleagues at the University of Oregon, has demonstrated that severely intellectually handicapped people can be taught to be productive. What has yet to be demonstrated is that the program can be replicated widely in "natural" settings and in countries with different social service provisions from the USA. Observations of a replication project in Australia indicate the following problems:

(i) There is a very small pool of personnel with the training skills necessary to teach these people.
(ii) The intensity of the training program can quickly lead to staff stress and subsequent "burn-out."
(iii) There is a heavy reliance upon non-disabled employees to maintain contracts.
(iv) The program requires a higher level of financial support than those far less severely handicapped people—a political decision is required to redress this situation.

However, one spin-off of such a program is that training is not viewed with as much derision and skepticism as it was formerly. A further strength of this demonstration project is its emphasis upon good business practices. Many sheltered workshops have not operated as efficient businesses with the result that profits are very low. This obviously affects the level of wages that are paid to employees.

One of the reasons sheltered workshops have been in a predicament is that there has not been an intermediary stage between school and work. Therefore, if more adequate transition programs are implemented sheltered workshops should be able to concentrate more upon production. This should lead to their being able to pay more equitable wages than is currently the case. Obviously there will still need to be a training element in their operation, as there is in industries generally. Unlike industries which employ only nondisabled people, they have been expected to provide **all** the training including, in many cases, community living programs. It is not surprising, then, that their track record has been fairly poor considering the impossible

task that is set for them.

Placement in adult training centre (ATC)

These centres, formerly known as activity therapy centres, were initiated in the Australian scene in the early 70's to cater for those people whose disabilities were so severe that they could not be employed in a sheltered workshop. Initially there was a suggestion that with suitable personal and social development programs they would become "ready" for employment. As was pointed out earlier, the flaw in this model is that these skills are not pre-requisites for vocational skills. This is in line with the finding by Halpern (1985) that the relationship between vocational and community living skills is quite low.

There is no question that many people with severe disabilities require extensive skills development in these areas, as they do in the vocational sphere. However, the question needs to be asked as to where this training is provided, and by whom? As is the case of those proceeding directly from school to sheltered employment, there is currently no provision for a tertiary stage of education for this group. In a number of ATC's in New South Wales parents are paying substantial fees for their adolescent/adult handicapped children to attend. And this is in a country where traditional tertiary education is *free!*

The Handicapped Persons Programs Review recommends that the training role of ATC's be assumed by community or technical colleges. In Australia a number of states also provide a service known as Adult Education which runs parallel to the community colleges. The basic difference is that the latter can provide courses leading to a credential, usually in a trade. Boards of Adult Education conduct evening colleges which cater more for leisure and hobby-type activities.

A good argument can be mounted for a mix of vocational and community living skills programs for people with severe disabilities. Owing to the longer time required to train to criterion, it is unrealistic to consider that community living skills training can be accomplished exclusively after working hours. The main consideration is that it is not to be assumed that either is a pre-requisite to the other. The catalogue of activities approach can help to ensure that an integrated program is devised.

In summary, the following strategies are recommended:

(i) All young people with disabilities should have access to generic tertiary level educational facilities.

(ii) Curricula and programs in these facilities should be developed to meet the individual needs of these young people.

(iii) These programs should build upon earlier work. Therefore there ought to be a continuation of the individual transition plan.

(iv) Recurrent adult education programs are required to retrain people as their needs change throughout their lives.

(v) Personnel working in generic tertiary facilities require training in ways they can help young people with disabilities.

(vi) Training courses for personnel working in specialized facilities is also required.

(vii) While personal, interpersonal and social skills *may* be unrelated to specific vocational skills, they nevertheless may affect whether a person gets and holds a job in competitive employment. As they are thus more corequisites than prerequisites to effective employment they should receive equal attention in transition programs at this level.

(viii) Wherever appropriate, skills learned should be practised in natural environments.

Community living and vocational placement

While these could be construed as the outputs or products of the system of transition it is suggested that they are still part of the process towards effective **community adjustment**. A key issue to be considered is the need for some form of ongoing support for many people who have disabilities, in both the community living and vocational areas. What is required is a **service system** that will provide this support. Lakin and Bruininks (1985) define a service system as follows:

> ... its components (agencies and people) are interrelated, interdependent, and coordinated to form a unified whole, they are governed by a common overriding principle, and they operate in service of a single purpose (p. 275).

They then go on to outline a number of steps that are critical to the establishment of a service system.

(i) Development of a means of obtaining and allocating funding so that programmatic issues rather than financial issues determine clients' placement in the system.

(ii) Establishment of a plan for increasing the sense of shared purpose and programmatic direction across individual elements of the system through personnel development procedures.[1]

(iii) Provision of active habilitation for clients, including a single set of goals, a unified training program, and standard assessment regardless of the number of different system components with which they have contact.

(iv) Supporting case management that is based on and aggressively promotes the purpose and direction of the system.

(v) Establishment of a method of systematic and recurrent evaluation of clients, providers, services, and cuts across the entire system, with a commitment to use those data for modifying

service delivery.

In addition to providing formal networks of a service system, research has indicated the critical importance of informal support networks for vocational success (Kernan & Koegal, 1984) and for satisfactory community living (Kaufman, 1984). A criterion of successful community adjustment frequently overlooked by professionals involved in the formal service system is the level of satisfaction a person with a disability feels about his/her life. For instance, an issue to be reconciled within the question of whether a person should proceed to competitive or sheltered employment, is that of friendship networks. Kaufman (1984) in her study of friendship, coping systems and community adjustment of mentally retarded adults suggests that while competitive employment carries higher prestige for some people, for others a workshop is more functional for forming reciprocal friendships and romantic attachments. Of course if competitive employment is not offered as an option individuals will not have the opportunity to make a choice.

Formal service systems can be designed to support and promote naturally occuring social networks, particularly the family. The importance of a social and interpersonal network for successful community participation is well documented (e.g. O'Connor, 1983; Halpern, 1985). Not only are social networks considered important in terms of quality of life, but they also play a role as a buffer against stressful life events. For instance, Halpern defines social and interpersonal networks as including:

> ...major dimensions of human relationships such as daily communication, self esteem, family support, emotional maturity, friendship and intimate relationships (p. 481).

In order to foster natural social networks the following strategies are recommended:

(i) There should be an emphasis upon a movement from professional to family/friendship/community networks. This is seen as a way of reducing the often occurring one-way "dependency" relationships that commonly exist between service providers and service recipients.

(ii) Develop an individual's skills to understand, effectively participate in, and expand personal and social networks.

(iii) Develop in parents, and other family members, an understanding and appreciation of the individual's changing status during the transition to adult life (i.e. transfer of decision making, responsibility).

(iv) Implement staff training to (a) develop a knowledge and understanding of the importance of family and friendship networks, and (b) develop skills to utilize, foster, and maintain the social networks relevant or important to an individual.

'e.g. the use of individual transition plans.

(v) Provide advocates where necessary and assist in the development of self-advocacy programs which help the individual to establish personal/social relationships.

(vi) Utilize fully generic community resources so that young people with disabilities are visible in the community. This educates the members of the community who become more aware of the social and personal needs of these people.

In the area of vocational placement at least three strategies are relevant; (a) creating job opportunities, (b) obtaining a job, and (c) keeping a job.

Creating job opportunities

This is largely in the hands of Federal government macro-economic policies and the health of international commerce. However, initiatives which can ameliorate the position for disadvantaged groups include:

(i) Affirmative action and equal opportunities legislation seem to be the way forward for Australian conditions. As indicated earlier, the quota system has been examined and found to have serious deficiencies.

(ii) Incentives to employers such as time limited wage subsidies, an extension of the Commonwealth Rehabilitation Service (CRS) Work Therapy scheme and tax incentives to facilitate support according to need are strategies which could enhance job opportunities for people with disabilities.

(iii) An advertising program should be targeted at union and employer groups to demonstrate the merits of employing people with disabilities, including those with severe disabilities. An associated employer and co-worker education program should be mounted to dispel myths and prejudices concerning the employability of people with disabilities.

(iv) Workplace modification, which is already a policy supported by CRS and the Federal Public Service Board, should be extended. Tax concessions for workplace modification and the supply of modified equipment should be considered by the Taxation Department. Special training positions and other work supported options should be explored.

(v) Special initiatives by individuals or groups such as small business loans, worker cooperation incentives, product-market development assistance and targeted community employment programs should be supported.

Obtaining a job

(i) Active placement programs including an extension of the current CES special placement officers and CRS vocational councillors. The on-site training schemes initiated by Osborne Park Work Preparation Program

and Project Employment in Perth, Western Australia, should be adopted more widely. Specific job placement with support should be targeted at the current sheltered workshop population, the majority of whom have mild disabilities.

(ii) Specific job training programs require consolidation and expansion. These include work preparation programs, and vocational courses conducted in community colleges.

(iii) For those with physical disabilities there needs to be an expansion of access to transport and a provision of attendant care at the work place.

(iv) There needs to be a minimization of financial and welfare disincentives by a change in legislation which affects income maintenance programs. An improvement in access to health benefits when in competitive employment would remove a major disincentive.

(v) Parent and family education is required to combat the "pension" syndrome prevalent in the Australian scene. Because of disincentives, parents, and many disabled people themselves, see little point in getting a job when they are often better off financially by staying on an invalid pension or unemployment relief. These programs should commence early in the transition process and be integrated into the individual transition plan.

Keeping a job

(i) Effective postplacement support may be provided by an expansion of schemes such as the 6-month follow-up provided by CRS programs; encouragement of peer support and employer support schemes; on the job training; placement agency follow-up; and involvement of employer groups in promoting the concept.

(ii) A provision for recurrent retraining and upgrading of skills by community colleges and other tertiary education facilities.

(iii) On-going co-worker and employer education schemes.

(iv) Participation in a defined career structure supported by offices of equal opportunity.

(v) Provision of career counselling by personnel departments in worker's organization.

CHAPTER FOUR

Conclusions

The current emphasis upon quality transition programs is obviously a reflection of the awareness of an urgent social need, not only for youth who are handicapped with a disability, but for youth generally. In a sense, it is almost too late for the current generation of young people, as the solution to the problem in large part rests with educational and other services systems at a much younger stage of their lives. Career education in its broadest sense must start early and for many young people with disabilities their elementary and junior secondary education has not equipped them for benefiting from the later stages of the transition process.

While service organizations consider that the development of a young person's skills and knowledge is the prerogative of education authorities, for young people with disabilities an earlier start must be made to an interagency approach including all sectors that will eventually be involved in their transition process. It is here that the suggested long-range individual transition plan has relevance. This could be a vehicle through which the sectors make a concrete commitment to their involvement in this process, leading to a more effective planning of resources.

A cardinal factor is the involvement of parents in this planning. Parents often receive little information or guidance concerning their child's future life choices or, what is even worse, the information they do receive is often inappropriate. Parents require sympathetic assistance in the life-long process of coming to grips with the fact that they have a child with a disability—yet a child who has the same rights and privileges of a nondisabled person.

Active participation of the consumer in planning for their career choices is also mandatory to counter their feelings of rejection and their gradual acceptance of the negative assessments of those around them. A combination of patronizing attitudes on the part of parents, teachers, and nondisabled peers so often limits their horizons.

Although integration programs have been in existence for a number of years, a critical examination needs to be made of their success, particularly as it relates to the way the adolescents feel about them. This is not to deny the philosophical correctness of integration, but it is meant to question whether the implementation has been effective. Segregated programs were a result of the regular system's perceived inability to cope with children with disabilities. One wonders if anything has really changed!

This leads to a questioning of the curriculum, instructional strategies and personnel preparation. The transition curriculum must recognize that it is impossible to separate personal and social needs from a capacity for work. While work does provide a social framework around which a person can achieve a reasonable sense of personal satisfaction, too frequently the low

status jobs gained by people with disabilities—even those in competitive employment—do not guarantee wide social acceptance or satisfactory community adjustment. Therefore training in interpersonal and social skills; in how to make and keep friends, is as important as how to get and keep a job. And as many young people with disabilities will either choose not to work or will not be able to obtain work, the curriculum also must provide them with the skills to occupy their time in a meaningful and satisfactory way.

There is little evidence, at least in the Australian scene, that personnel, including teachers, are being adequately prepared to deliver transition programs. What is even more disturbing is that personnel preparation does not seem to be a high priority area in government planning. Effective training programs would allow professionals to study and challenge the various models and philosophies of the transition process; they would give them skills to assist young people through the process; and above all they should provide them with the commitment to an ongoing evaluation of the profession they are practicing.

Finally, there is a need for a greater social commitment to research which is directly related to the social and vocational integration of young people in the transition process. In comparison to the amount spent on service programs in many countries, inadequate though it may be, only a miniscule proportion is spent on research and evaluation. Without an adequate data base we cannot even appreciate the extent of the problem. Without program evaluation we cannot be sure what we are doing is useful. And above all, if we do not listen to what these young people are trying to tell us, we may be limiting their choices to contribute to the community so that they become, in Patricia Rowan's (1985) words, "passive recipients of society's institutionalized charity" (p. 12).

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EXAMPLES OF TRANSITION PROGRAMS

Following are brief descriptions of a small sample of innovative transition programs which have been set up in Australia. These programs are not fully representative of what is currently happening in this area, but they do indicate that there is an awareness of the transition needs of young people with disabilities. Some of the programs are initiatives of government agencies, but the majority were started as a result of grass roots action. It is particularly encouraging that there is a growing number of energetic, highly professional personnel who are committed to providing high quality programs. The challenge ahead is for the work to be disseminated and replicated.

Example 1: Organization of Special Education in Secondary Schools

Example 2: The Tertiary Education for Disabled Committee

Example 3: The T.R.A.I.L.S. Centre

Example 4: Work Preparation Programs

Example 5: IMAC Service: A Pilot Project

Example 6: Active Job Services

Example 7: The G.J. Coles Venture

Example 8: The Epilepsy Association of South Australia's Training and Placement Service

Example 9: Mater Dei Special School Community Residential Program

Example 10: Housing for Young Disabled People (HYDP)—Crippled Children's Association of South Australia

EXAMPLE 1
ORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Jean Reid, formerly in charge of Department of Special Education, Daramalan College, Canberra. (Reprinted from *The preparation of disabled young people for adult society*, Canberra: Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1981.)

Special classes have been the main organising strategy to cope with disabled students in secondary schools. These classes are often only operational in Years 7 and 8 and include not only the mildly mentally handicapped but often the cultural and socially disadvantaged, as well as those children with specific learning disabilities. Students in these classes are often disadvantaged because their segregated course of studies makes future integration difficult, and the teachers are often called upon to teach subjects beyond their competence. Many children become disillusioned and leave school at the minimum age, ill prepared to take their place in society.

If we are to offer the schooling necessary to prepare disabled students for employment we may need to design an alternative curriculum to meet their needs, and to free them of the organizational restrictions of the rest of the school.

The Vocational Curriculum

The five components into which the vocational curriculum may be classified are as follows:

(1) The infusing of career information into all subject areas.
(2) The provision of opportunities to develop as many work and leisure skills as possible.
(3) The development of literacy and numeracy skills necessary for everyday living.
(4) Work experience decision making relevant to students' self awareness, interests and ability.
(5) Work experience—the interaction between school and the community, home and family—and job decision.

With work experience as the nucleus an alternative curriculum could be designed for disabled students, such a curriculum to cover Years 7 to 10 and to include the teaching of personal skills, social skills, basic skills and work and leisure skills.

The core curriculum would consist of Apprenticeship Maths, English for Living (including remedial reading) and Apprenticeship Science (basic requirements for entry into most apprenticeships) and Social Science for presenting knowledge of the community in which the students live.

Personal and social skills could include strategies to develop initiative, a self dependence and self imposed sanctions to encourage a lessening degree

of economic and emotional dependence on the family, and to increase personal responsibility in relationships and social groups.

Work and leisure skill development would vary according to the resources and personnel of the schools but could include such subjects as technical drawing, woodwork, metalwork, motor maintenance, cooking, media studies, horticulture, photograph, film making, pottery, jewellery making, screen printing, leatherwork, rug making.

For such vocational curriculum to be implemented (and to be successful) teaching strategies and organisational structures require to be designed to suit the curriculum.

Teaching Strategies

The following list of strategies is meant only to be read as a guideline. Many teachers and schools could provide a more exhaustive and pertinent list.

(1) A careful analysis of the complex educational needs of each individual student in the unit; such an analysis to include not only the student's weaknesses but also the strengths.

(2) The provision of a caring and sharing environment based on personal relationships and personal responsibility. Such an environment frees students from anxiety and fear of failure, enabling them to explore their own potential and set their own goals.

(3) Individualised instruction as far as is practicable. The involvement of parents as active partners in education (tutoring reading and mathematics) allows for more individual programs to be designed.

(4) Intensive use of visual media as an alternative teaching tool, so compensating for usual severe reading disability.

(5) An increasing use of modern technology for basic drill and remediation (computers, calculators, spelling machines).

Organisational Structure

The following organisational model may be defined as "a school within a school"—a special educational unit offering a complete educational program within a regular school.

(1) The setting up of a Department of Special Education responsible for all students in all subjects within the unit.

(2) The use of special education teachers to teach Mathematics and English, as well as being responsible for pastoral care, counselling and the development of personal skills.

(3) Specialist teachers from the regular school to teach specialist subjects; such teachers to be given inservice training within such areas as teaching techniques and classroom control and organisation of disabled students.

(4) Students in vocational classes to be integrated in many of the social, sporting and workshop activities, in the school, but segregated for the core curriculum.

(5) Vocational classes to be 'open-ended' so that students may move easily from or into classes as their needs dictate.
(6) Core subjects to be timetabled for morning periods as far as possible.
(7) Frequent evaluation of the program, assessing the extent to which it meets the needs of the students.

EXAMPLE 2
THE TERTIARY EDUCATION FOR DISABLED COMMITTEE

The T.E.D. Committee was set up in 1984 as a Participation and Equity Program Cluster to coordinate relevant educational areas for senior students in the Sydney Metropolitan West Special Schools and share resulting information, resources and material.

It has representatives from local special schools (Kurrambee, Halinda, Coreen, Holroyd, Hassall St. and The Hills), Technical and Further Education (TAFE) consultants for disabled people and a local community group concerned with the handicapped (T.R.A.I.L.S.).

In 1985 the T.E.D. committee has been involved in a number of initiatives to assist senior students in their schools. These include,

Vocational Oriented TAFE Courses—So far we have received funding through the Technical and Further Education Commission for three courses—kitchen assistant, office skills and retailing, and horticulture. These will be 14 week courses, 2 days a week (14 x 2 x 5 = 140 hours). Schools have obtained relevant work experience to go with these courses.

Accreditation—We are currently negotiating with TAFE over accreditation for these courses, linked with their school assessments.

Survey—A survey is being sent out to all students who have left schools over the past 5 years. They will be asked for information such as—

Time since leaving school
Positions they have held
Present situations
Type of disability
Living arrangements

Resource Booklet—A resource booklet is also being prepared. This would provide information on resources and facilities available for disabled students in Sydney's West.

EXAMPLE 3
THE T.R.A.I.L.S. CENTRE

T.R.A.I.L.S.—The Training Resources and Independent Living Skills Centre, was established in 1984. Its aim is to give support to intellectually handicapped youth, to enable them to participate in community based groups in Western Sydney.

A coordinator and two field workers are employed, as well as volunteers.

TRAILS is located at 93-95 O'Neill Street, Guildford.

Hours—9:00am-5:00pm Monday-Friday.

Telephone—632 8944; *Contact*—Sandra Janes—Coordinator

General Aim: To give support to disabled people in integrating into the community.

Specific Aims:

- Ongoing support and assistance for placement both to the community service and the disabled person.
- To identify services and organisations which will assist in the participation of intellectually disabled people in the community; the areas include—education & training; vocational; recreational; social; transport.
- To liaise with these groups and refer disabled people to them for placement.
- To follow up placement with appropriate ongoing support and assistance to the disabled person and the service.
- To act as an information centre for disabled people, their families, advocates and concerned professionals.
- To initiate programs and services which will be of benefit to disabled people.
- To promote the concept of integration with groups and residents of Western Sydney.
- To act as an advocate for disabled people and their families when dealing with community and government organisations.

EXAMPLE 4
WORK PREPARATION PROGRAMS

There are seven work preparation programs conducted by the Commonwealth Rehabilitation Service across Australia, each catering for an aveage of 50 mildly intellectually handicapped adolescents. The aims of the twelve-month program are to prepare these young people for work and independent living. The clients usually come straight from either a special school or a regular high school. Thus their service is effectively providing a tertiary level of education for these young people.

A variety of training models are in operation. The two original programs which commenced in 1973 (see Parmenter, 1980, for a full description) were established in a simulated factory environment and the vocational training was directed towards light industrial skills. Intensive group training was also given in social, interpersonal and independent living skills. A number of programs are still following this model.

In other programs, however, much of the training is conducted in the community, using enclaves, crews, and job-on-site training as methods of delivering these programs. Social and interpersonal skills training is integrated into the community programs. As each of the program models emerged to meet local needs, there does not appear to be much difference between their various job placement and retention rates.

These programs have acted as a catylyst in the delivery of transition programs in Australia, having had an impact upon other service delivery organizations such as community colleges.

EXAMPLE 5
IMAC SERVICE: A PILOT PROJECT

What is IMAC (Integration, Maintenance, and Community Service)?

Integration, maintenance and community service is a pilot project currently funded under the Community Employment Program. It is a new concept that utilises the least restrictive alternative premise for short term training and employment of eight moderately developmentally disabled men and women. This is achieved by a small business cooperative that supplements existing community services. IMAC service offers a comprehensive home care service including garden maintenance, cleaning, laundry and other special services to the needy, aged and infirm in the local community.

It acknowledges the guidelines expressed under the Handicapped Persons Program Review, i.e. the need for "domicilliary care—handymen and home help services" plus addressing the traditional "lack of opportunity for further education/training for persons in sheltered employment."

Aims and Goals

The project aims to provide employees with the skills that will equip them to obtain and maintain competitive open employment, thus aiding their development of maximum economic and independent function. This is achieved within a framework of dual community benefit.

Firstly, the developmentally disabled prople benefit from independent skills acquisition that complements personal independence. Major benefits are the reduction of complex tasks to be mastered separately for home and work, and the active facilitation of skills transfer from setting to setting—both well documented problem areas in habilitation of the developmentally disabled. Because the project is community based and meets real community service needs, employees' self esteem and community awareness are heightened.

Secondly, aged or otherwise handicapped persons currently residing in their own homes have access to service which *is not* currently provided by other service agencies and thus they can continue to function in the community. Their self esteem is also heightened by their facilitation of the potential of developmentally disabled employees.

All those who have contact with the service benefit by developing a more positive and realistic understanding of intellectual disability. By assisting developmentally disabled people to become service providers instead of social burdens the community is forced to reassess traditionally held values of worth. Both employees and clients are thus provided with an alternative to the more costly, socially and financially, solution of institutionalization and segregated service.

IMAC Service Skills Breakdown

Travel
1.1 To/From Lane Cove
1.2 In/Around local shopping area
1.3 To/From Crows Nest
1.4 To/From Chatswood
1.5 To/From Roseville
1.6 To/From Client (1)
1.7 To/From Client (2)
1.8 To/From Client (3)
1.9 Ability to use maps
1.10 Ability to use time tables

Work Skills Indoors
2.1 Tool identification
2.2 Vacuuming
2.3 Sweeping
2.4 Mopping
2.5 Dusting Furniture
2.6 Polishing Furniture
2.7 Removing Cobwebs
2.8 Change light bulb
2.9 Wash dishes
2.10 Make bed
2.11 Clean toilet
2.12 Clean bath
2.13 Clean kitchen
2.14 Wash windows
2.15 Laundry
2.16 Basic sewing

Work Skills Outdoors
3.1 Tool identification
3.2 Can tell difference between weeds and plants
3.3 Hand weeding
3.4 Lawn mowing
3.5 Edging
3.6 Hoeing
3.7 Trimming hedges
3.8 Removing roots
3.9 Tree clearance
3.10 Pruning
3.11 Fill garbage bags
3.12 Tie up garbage bags
3.13 Bundle and tie up wood
3.14 Wash windows
3.15 Painting

Advertising Brochure

What are we?

We are a non profit organization funded through the Community Employment Program and sponsored by the Lorna Hodgkinson Sunshine Home.

We supplement and expand existing home community services in the Lower North Shore Region of Sydney.

Exactly what services do we provide?

- Pet care and maintenance, i.e. feeding the budgie, walking the dog, etc.
- Gardening maintenance, i.e. lawn mowing, hedge trimming, basic weeding.
- Light everyday service, i.e. dishwashing, making a cup of tea, collecting the mail, etc.
- General cleaning, i.e. washing windows, vacuuming, dusting, etc.

And other special jobs as needed.

Other important information

We can provide all our own equipment including a lawnmower, vacuum cleaner and tools of trade.

We can also remove gardening and cleaning waste as part of our service.

How You Can Help Us!

By using our service

You can provide meaningful work experience to mildly intellectually handicapped persons.

All our training is on the job and supervised by experienced and certified professionals, so we can ensure a quality service.

Our trainees, by assisting you, gain important skills that are relevant to their

- self image
- personal coping skills
- community understanding

Their success in this endeavour will assist them towards their ultimate goal of open and competitive employment.

Utilization of our service will help towards a positive and realistic understanding of intellectual disability by yourself and the community at large.

So Help Us And Help Yourself

EXAMPLE 6
ACTIVE JOB SERVICES

Introduction

Active Job Services was launched in August, 1984, as a self help employment service for people who are disabled in the Sydney metropolitan area. The project is innovative because all of its nine employees will be people who are disabled and who will be developing and applying job acquistion skills to the real needs of disabled people throughout the metropolitan area. Further, Active Job Services is not tied to any particular Government, Rehabilitation Service or Agency, (although it enjoys the support of all of these groups) and it will offer a range of services previously unavailable for its client group.

Organization

Active Job Services was sponsored for Community Employment Program (CEP) funding by the Employment of People with Disabilities Interagency (EPDI). EPDI held its inaugural meeting on 24th February, 1983, and its overall aims are as follows:

- Maximise job opportunities for people with disabilities.
- Provide a forum for the discussion of the employment related needs of people with disabilities and to develop the mechanisms for satisfying these needs where possibile.
- Examine Government and corporate recruitment policies and practices impact on disabled job seekers; and to discuss and seek to change these where EPDI consider necessary.
- Seek out specialists in manpower planning and research. Broaden our members' knowledge of the current and emerging job scenes as they affect disabled workers.
- Stimulate the maximum input from disabled individuals and groups in EPDI.

Active Job Services was initially funded by the CEP for fifty two weeks which means that it cannot employ participants for more than twelve months, nor can it be guaranteed of whole or partial funding from that source.

The Needs

At the conclusion of the March, 1985, quarter there were 26,883 people who are disabled registered for unemployment with the Commonwealth Employment Service (CES) in New South Wales. This represents an increase of 7.5 per cent—1870 people—on the figures available for the quarter ended June, 1984. Approximately 56 per cent of those registered for unemployment reside within the Sydney Metropolitan Area.

Source of the above figures is The Commonwealth Employment Services Statistics. In addition to disabled people registered for employment there are

a substantial number of people in the metropolitan area who have given up using the services of the CES. This is because of the bureaucracy-related disincentives they may have experienced during the period of registration. In addition many of these people may have lost their self confidence and the perseverance to seek work following the recession which is still restricting opportunities for job seekers in New South Wales.

A regional analysis of distribution and need for services for people who are disabled in New South Wales, published by the Council of Social Services in New South Wales in August, 1983, shows that job placement services for handicapped people are quite clearly undersupplied for the whole of New South Wales.

Statistics also show that people who are disabled tend to remain unemployed longer than the less disadvantaged job-seeker. In this area Active Job Services will be complementing the services offered by the CES.

Whereas the CES is required to satisfy the demands of both the employer, in filling job vacancies, and the unemployed job-seeker, the role of Active Job Services is to seek equity in employment for people with disabilities who represent approximately 8 per cent of the total number of persons registered for employment.

The Objectives

- To identify jobs for people with disabilities and to place people in these jobs.
- To train vocational specialists in this field.
- To research and document findings of employment opportunities for people with disabilities—including gaps in available resources.
- To publicise disabled worker's abilities and interests.
- To provide technical back-up and assistance for people with disabilities placed in jobs.
- To make contact with unemployed people with disabilities and to review their job expectations in a nonbureaucratic environment.
- To seek practical skill and work training options.
- To create new relationships with employers, rehabilitation agencies and groups.
- To seek Government and related agencies cooperation in the operation of the project.
- The project to be managed and staffed by people with disabilities for the benefit of people with disabilities.

The Program

- Active Job Services to liaise with Department of Community Services, CES, and other related departments and agencies on training subsidies, schemes and employment opportunities for people with disabilities.
- To implement training program for Active Job Services staff through the

resources of government departments and related agencies.

- To promote the Active Job Services project through employment organisations, industry, commerce, trade unions, government departments and the media.
- To contact clients and categorise their employment requirements.
- To contact employers to determine type and volume of employment opportunities for disabled people.
- Initiate special projects such as work trials, special skills development, etc.
- Placement of Active Job Services staff in public/private sector at the termination of their employment.

EXAMPLE 7
THE G. J. COLES VENTURE
June E. Dempster, Rosemary W. Lawn, Suaan K. Robertson, Gregory M. Lewis

Introduction

This is the first of a series describing exploratory employment initiatives developed by Project Employment (Inc) to increase the employment alternatives for intellectually disabled workers seeking employment in open industry.

Project Employment (Inc) is a Western Australian based nonprofit employment agency for intellectually disabled persons. In addition to offering access to open employment, Project Employment also provides comprehensive on-the-job training subsequent to placement. Project Employment Services are available to any intellectually disabled person—regardless of severity of disability—who is motivated to work in open employment.

Project Employment (Inc) is actively involved in developing new avenues to open employment for intellectually disabled workers. Reports of placement rates from around the world suggest that conventional transitional strategies are not adequate. In addition to adopting more aggressive marketing tactics, service providers need also to generate new "foot in the door" approaches to open industry.

One such approach is "Repeat Business." The tactic behind Repeat Business is to negotiate a single position with a large corporation. Once secured, a worker is selected who is likely to rise more rapidly to full production. The rationale underlying this decision is to enhance positively the image of intellectually disabled workers at the earliest opportunity. Once placed, the support agency allocates generous training and supervision resources to enhance further the images of both the worker and the agency. With a solid track record established, the agency is in a strong position to bid

for any new vacancies that arise in related positions within the corporation. Using such tactics, Project Employment has increased its penetration of the G.J. Coles Supermarket chain in Perth, Western Australia, from one to eight fully paid positions in seven months. When vacancies now arise in the areas of shopping cart collection or parcel pick-up, Coles approaches Project Employment with an offer to fill the vacancy.

This paper discusses the development of this project and makes specific reference to how to select suitable workers, how to locate suitable jobs, how to locate suitable corporations, how to delineate on-the-job requirements, how to generate appropriate resources and how to make your agency indispensable to the target corporation.

Project Employment operates a three-phase, sequential, job placement model. All Coles workers proceeded through the three phases:

1. Job Specification
2. Job Search
3. Job Support

Employment Statistics

During 1984/85 eight Project Employment workers commenced work at Coles using the Repeat Business tactic. Table 1 provides a summary of the jobs secured.

Table 1: Jobs secured

Worker	Sex	Age	Job
SK	Male	28	Trolley return
GK	Male	22	Parcel pick-up
PP	Male	21	Shelf stacking
AK	Male	18	Trolley return
EC	Male	22	Parcel pick-up
MN	Male	18	Parcel pick-up
RB	Male	16	Trolley return
BE	Male	18	Trolley return

Accurate records are maintained of all workers' on-the-job support. The amount of training required by each Coles worker appears in Table 2.

Table 2: Training Times

Worker	Training Time	Current Status
SK	20 hours	Independent
GK	16 hours	Independent
PP	8 hours	Independent
AK	127 hours	Terminated
EC	12 hours	Independent
MN	20 hours	Resigned
RB	28 hours	2 hrs/wk support
BE	38 hours	Independent

Cole's average turn-over rate of nondisabled workers in trolley return, parcel pick-up and shelf-stacking is 3 months. The average length of employment for the Project Employment works is now in excess of 8 months which has had a dramatic impact on staff stabilisation at the Coles Store (see Table 3).

Table 3: Length of Tenure

Worker	Length of Time
SK	12 months
GK	12 months
PP	12 months
AK	8 months
EC	12 months
MN	3 weeks
RB	5 months
BE	4 months
AV	8.2 months

1. Job Specification

The applicant's initial contact with the organisation began with an interview. Firstly, the applicant's job and career interests were discussed. Secondly, a topography of potential work support skills such as reading, writing, calculating, time telling, transport and conversation skills was developed. The topography was then considered against the job interests and resume of suitable jobs established.

2. Job Search

A number of applicants had indicated interest in the area of supermarket services—in particular, shelf stacking, parcel pick-up and trolley collection. Therefore a decision was made to target a large supermarket chain. Preliminary investigations revealed that G.J. Coles was a suitable corporation for the following reasons:

(a) Work routines in these areas were well established and consistent which would facilitate future training.
(b) Large stores were staffed by a personnel manager which would facilitate better communication and closer contact between management and workers.
(c) Coles had experienced high turnover in these areas in the past and would be very interested in establishing a long-term, stable workforce.
(d) Coles management were attracted by the good public relations that Project Employment could bring to bear through its media contact.

3. Job Support

Successful employers automatically qualify for up to 400 hours of on-the-job training for each employee. This service is provided free of charge by a

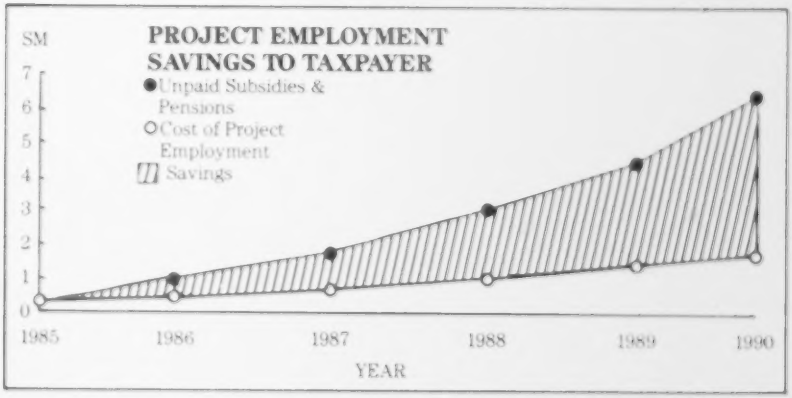
specially trained Project Employment Work Trainer. The work trainer is available to assist with training, supervision, orientation or any other need which may arise in the workplace. This association continues until such time as the employer and the work trainer deem that the employee is meeting all expectations of the job.

Prior to the worker commencing, each job was thoroughly researched and task analysed by the allocated work trainer. For example, parcel pick-up involves five discrete tasks: loading tubs from the shop floor, replenishing tubs, stacking tubs, loading groceries into the car, exchanging trolleys. At the end of the task analysis process detailed information had been collected on job layout, quality controls, quantity controls, safety controls, able bodied quality, able bodied quantity, component steps and discriminative chains.

All training is conducted on the job using Rapid Entry Training Techniques.[1] The Project Employment production form becomes the training curiculum and the work trainer has to conduct training in and around the job while mutually satisfying the training needs and the production demands.

Savings to the Community

Project Employment places thirty workers in open industry on award wages each year. For every person placed the average saving to the taxpayer in unpaid pensions and subsidies is $10,000 per year. Therefore, thirty people represent an annual saving of three hundred thousand dollars. By 1990 the total unpaid subsidies and pensions will have accumulated to 6.3 million dollars. Yet the cost of operating Project Employment will only have been 2 million dollars. Thus, the savings to the taxpayer will have amounted to 4.3 million dollars.



[1]Moore, R.E. & Lewis, G.N. (1985). *Rapid Entry Training. A Manual for Training Intellectually Disabled Workers in Open Employment.* Perth: Project Employment Inc.

The G.J. Coles Venture has already saved the taxpayer $44,000 in unpaid pensions and subsidies. In addition to this saving the workers are making their own-contribution to the the tax department.

Gains to the Workers

The success of the G.J. Coles venture cannot only be measured in terms of savings to the community, more important is the impact that open employment has had on the quality of life enjoyed by the workers. On the measure of material possessions these workers have individually purchased two horses, a speedboat, a ten-speed bicycle and a fishing rod. On the measure of self-development one worker has enrolled himself in an adult literacy course where previously he has never demonstrated any interest in such pursuits. On the measure of community integration one worker is now sharing a rented house with one of his nondisabled workmates. On the measure of career development one worker has been given supervision responsibilities over the casual nondisabled trolley collection staff. This presents a new and exciting challenge to Project Employment support staff.

Summary

The G.J. Coles venture has captured the imagination of the media and the general public alike. In September, 1985, the Store was visited by the Rt Honourable Brian Burke in his dual capacity as Premier of Western Australia and Chairman of the Board of Project Employment Inc. The visit, during which the Premier met with senior management and the workers, was covered by three television stations and six newspapers. The impact of such media coverage on the attitudes of the general public to intellectually disabled people is difficult to measure—but it must be considerable. The likelihood of Project Employment generating new repeat business ventures must be similarly enhanced.

EXAMPLE 8
THE EPILEPSY ASSOCIATION OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA'S TRAINING AND PLACEMENT SERVICE

1.1 *Historical Background of the Program*

The Epilepsy Association of South Australia's (EASA) Training and Placement Service (TAPS) was established in May 1983 with funding from the Commonwealth Department of Employment and Industrial Relations (DEIR).

TAPS was designed to be a work preparation program for persons suffering from epilepsy who were:

- 16 years of age and over
- unemployed
- assessed as having the capacity to obtain open employment
- assessed as having a commitment to obtain open employment
- registered with the CES.

Under the terms of a formal agreement between EASA and DEIR (The Program funding body) the aims of the program were defined to:

(a) Prepare participants for open employment through:
- personal independence (ability to take care of self)
- interpersonal independence (ability to relate to authority and peers)
- environmental independence (ability to negotiate general and community services)
- advancement of educational standards
- job seeking skills (ability to negotiate vocational environment)
- on-the-job and other appropriate vocational training.

(b) Locate employment opportunities by exploring, identifying and developing areas of vocational opportunity.

(c) Place participants in open employment and provide appropriate follow-up support.

TAPS staff include a program director, job development officer, psychologist, group worker, social worker and program assistant.

In order to achieve its objectives, TAPS has been structured along the following lines:

(a) *Group Information Sessions:*

Initial group information sessions are held regularly for prospective applicants to TAPS primarily to provide them with information about the program.

(b) *Applicant's Interview:*

Once interest has been demonstrated by a prospective applicant at the group information session, another appointment is made at which he/she can make out a formal application to enrol in the training program. An initial assessment as to the suitability of the applicant for the

training program or 'Placement Only' service is made by TAPS staff at this interview.

If an applicant is deemed unsuitable at this point he/she is normally referred to another more appropriate agency depending on his/her needs.

All applicants are required to complete an "Application for Services" (formerly "Intake Information") form providing details about their personal and family background, educational and employment histories, and medical background (particularly that concerning their epilepsy).

(c) *Training Course:*

Once accepted onto the formal training program (limit of 12 trainees) the successful applicant undergo an intensive full-time 16* week course which comprises the following course components:

- Epilepsy Education
- Choosing a Career
- Vocational Guidance and Counselling
- Job Getting Skills, e.g. personal presentation, job interviews
- Job Keeping Skills, e.g. punctuality, reliability
- Personal Awareness
- Communication/Interaction Skills
- Leisure Skills
- Individual Counselling
- Job Tryout (Work Experience)

The major emphasis is therefore on assisting those with epilepsy in developing their own job-getting and social skills to a level required to obtain and retain employment.

An integral part of the training program is the "job tryout" component whereby trainees are placed in a working environment in the community, usually for a two-week period.

(d) *Support Group:*

After having completed the training program, past participants are invited to return to TAPS at regular intervals to meet in a group setting designed to maintain and further develop their skills, both vocational and social.

(e) *'Placement Only' Service:*

The resources of TAPS are not limited to trainees enrolled in the program but have been extended to assist other persons with epilepsy in finding employment. These people either do not wish to do the TAPS program or alternatively are assessed as unsuitable for it, usually on the basis of their having adequate work and social skills in the first place.

*This may be extended in certain cases to a maximum of 24 weeks

(f) *Training Workshops:*
Specific training workshops on epilepsy and job getting skills are conducted to meet the needs of interested individuals.

(g) *Vocational Guidance:*
Apart from vocational guidance during the course of the training program, vocational guidance and/or counselling is also arranged through TAPS to 'Placement Only' clients to assist them in securing appropriate employment.

(h) *Film and Discussion Seminars:*
Additional day and evening film and discussion sessions have been held in response to demand by some applicants (and their families and friends) for further information on the subject of epilepsy.

In order to increase the awareness of epilepsy sufferers and the community in general regarding the existence of TAPS and the services it offers, a widespread publicity campaign has been employed since its inception in 1983. The publicity has included:

- Letters to senior counsellors at South Australian schools
- Leaflets and information brochures to rehabilitation consellors (DCS) and Special Employment Counsellors (CES)
- Classified advertisements
- Newspaper articles
- Community announcements on radio
- Country visits by TAPS program director
- Personal presentations to professional and pre-professional (tertiary student) groups
- Pamphlets, etc., to employers
- Establishment of referral network with other community agencies

EXAMPLE 9
MATER DEI SPECIAL SCHOOL
COMMUNITY RESIDENTIAL PROGRAM

Mater Dei is a residential and day special school for up to 80 students with moderate-mild intellectual disabilities. The program includes both an elementary and secondary school, six community residential facilities, family support services and professional and administrative personnel.

Mater Dei commenced operation in 1957. Until 1971 students were accepted, from all States in Australia, and from Singapore, New Guinea and Noumea. Students were generally mildly or moderately intellectually disabled and a number had additional emotional or behavioral problems. Accommodation was provided at the school in large dormitories with communal bathroom, dining and recreational rooms. Students were all female and classes were provided on campus. Visiting days were held monthly and students returned home at the end of each school term for holidays.

In 1971 a five-bedroom cottage was built on campus for older students. This cottage, staffed by a live-in residential worker, provided an opportunity for five senior students in their last two years of schooling to experience living in a small group, acquire basic skills in self management and domestic skills and to participate in community-based activities including work experience.

In 1978 the school administration commissioned a review of the role and objectives of Mater Dei. This review examined all aspects of the program including enrolment policy, curriculum, accommodation, integration, family support, transition education and finances. As result of the review a five-year plan was developed which resulted in the following innovations being achieved on target.

- The closure of the on-campus institutional accommodation and its replacement with cottages located in the nearby communities.
- The development of a comprehensive educational program for students, responsive to individual need, involving parents and family more closely.
- Priority to the enrolment of local children who cannot for various reasons remain full time with their family (e.g. because of behavioral or family difficulties) and those who are not currently benefitting from placement in their regular school.
- Boys are now accepted for enrolment.
- The majority of children return home on weekends. For those who cannot, a regular foster placement is arranged.
- A comprehensive family support service is provided and there is a close liaison between the school and the home.
- An integration program to provide pastoral or full integration of children into local regular schools is underway.

- A structured transition education program is in progress for older students, involving mainly work experience in the community.
- Each residence is staffed by a live-in social educator who teaches independent and community living skills.

Currently a new plan is being drawn up for the program. New developments will include:

- the special school program will be developed as a resource centre for the regular schools in the region.
- more emphasis will be placed upon short-term stay of students, both in the special school and the residences.
- more outreach assistance will be given to maintain children in their family home and in their regular school.
- other forms of residential accommodation will be explored for the older students, e.g. flats, in order to bridge the transition from the school to adult living. Experience has shown that many of the senior students who return to their family homes lose the independent and community living skills they have acquired.

EXAMPLE 10
HOUSING FOR YOUNG DISABLED PEOPLE (HYDP)—CRIPPLED CHILDREN'S ASSOCIATION OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

This program provides training and experience in independent living for young people 18 years or older who have physical disabilities. A key feature of the program is the use of care attendants for providing support and assistance. It utilizes training houses and flats in the suburbs of Adelaide. They are typical suburban dwellings, physically accessible and located near needed services and resources.

Residents are expected to take maximum responsibility for their lives and to participate in the decision making processes of the household. The age range of the residents is 18 to 35 years, with an average age of 23 years. Both sexes participate in the program and can remain up to 12 months in the initial training houses. Applicants must be able to manage with three hours or less care assistance per day.

The initial training house is staffed by a live-in residential care worker who oversees the work of the care attendants, acts as a back-up and resource person and generally ensures the smooth running of the household.

Strategies for promoting independence

The following five areas are identified as crucial components in promoting the independence of each resident:

(a) *Motivation*

Prospective residents are screened and assessed for their motivation to gain further competence and independence in their daily lives. The resident is expected to take responsibility for how he or she utilises the care attendant and for how the day is organised. Support and counselling is provided to assist the resident in maintaining high motivation to achieve his or her goals.

(b) *Aids to daily living*

Residents require a range of resources in order to perform daily tasks. The HYDP assesses each resident's need for special aids and resources and assists residents in obtaining these.

(c) *Skills of self-direction*

In order to equip residents with the skills to cope in more independent settings and to effectively respond to various situations, residents are encouraged to make their own decisions and to live with the consequences. These situations include decisions about leisure time, money, work, relationships, room management and how the attendant care resource is best used.

(d) *Networks*

Residents are encouraged and assisted to develop social networks and

friendships to assist in the maintenance of a healthy self-concept. The HYDP program recognises that everyone is in fact interdependent. The more meaningful the links are, the more successful the individual will be in coping with the demands of everyday life.

(e) *Community resources*
Residents in the program are assisted in accessing meaningful and valued community activities and resources. However the decision as to what activities the resident wishes to engage in is left completely up to the resident to determine.

Transition from School to Working Life: Some Implementation Issues

G. Thomas Bellamy, University of Oregon

In the monograph, "Bridges from School to Working Life," Trevor Parmenter provides an excellent broad review of the service issues surrounding this difficult transition for individuals with disabilities. By contrasting current professional literature from the United States with practice in Australia, Parmenter identifies a number of service gaps. His discussion of these gaps could serve as an eloquent appeal for service expansion and improvement in the United States as well as his own country. In short, the paper is exactly what is needed for productive international exchange of information in rehabilitation. Readers should have little difficulty in applying both the service analysis and the implied advocacy for service improvement to their own situations.

Rather than commenting directly on the values and issues which Parmenter raises, this review asks more broadly about the implementation of his recommendations within the context of government policy. Of course, implementation policy can never be totally divorced from program practice, so this line of inquiry does lead to some alternative programmatic suggestions as well. These alternatives are not intended as implicit criticism of Parmenter's work, but rather as an effort to advance the implementation of our shared program goals.

The transition form school to working life is not unlike many other social problems faced by government. Once sufficient leverage is exerted to prompt government action, the question to be addressed is straightforward: Who should get what service for what purpose? To investigate this question, the present commentary first asks who should get transition services. Attention is then turned to what the purpose of those services is and what kinds of services are needed to achieve that purpose.

Who Should Get Services?

Parmenter provides a very good discussion of how the presence of a disability produces different types and degrees of handicap in relation to the changing demands of school, work, and community living. An individual may indeed require no special help to complete schooling, yet still be severely handicapped when it comes to work. Parmenter points out the problem that arises as different definitions of disability are used by different service agencies, and suggests that increased coordination and information sharing could provide each agency a more complete picture of individual functioning.

However, the monograph does not address the relationship between these definitions and access to public services. Should we simply assume that linking eligibility to different definitions of disability across different agencies will ensure that those who need services at any particular time will receive them? If we assume that service resources are scarce in relation to the number of people who would then qualify for and expect services, the critical implementation question is how government agencies can ensure the best allocation of those resources. Avoiding this question, Parmenter appears to argue for a service entitlement when he writes: "(A)ll disabled people should have access to appropriate services. . . .The services to meet these needs should be provided regardless of place of residence, type of disability, or other circumstance." (early in the monograph.)

An alternative to arguing for such an entitlement would be to redirect the search for definitional clarity to the goal of the transitional process itself. Once one clearly identifies the desired outcome of the transition process, then the individual's status in relation to that goal properly emerges as a variable in service allocation decisions. The connection between service and disability should not be automatic. In this approach one need not assume that all people with disabilities either need or would benefit from service, but rather could ask which individuals need assistance in reaching the goals of transition.

What is the Purpose of Transition?

While not operationally defined, the goal of transition is presented in the monograph from a clinical, service delivery perspective: Successful transition would lead, Parmenter suggests, to a "satisfying and productive adult life," "personal development and autonomy," and "adult adjustment." This treatment is consistent with much of the literature concerned with establishing goals for persons who are recipients of education and service programs. In effect, this approach extends the broad goals of education to adult services, with resulting focus on adjustment (e.g., Halpern, 1985), quality of life (Baker & Intagliata, 1982), and developmental progress (Conroy & Bradley, 1985) as the outcomes of services.

Unfortunately, it is difficult for governments to know when or whether one has enough adjustment, development, or quality of life. Services can and do go on indefinitely, promoting quality of life for recipients while equally deserving persons receive no services at all. It is not surprising, therefore, that many government agencies have looked beyond these traditional service outcomes for goals that could provide a rational basis on which to make service allocation decisions. When is a service necessary for an individual with a disability, and when is his or her social network and employment situation sufficient without services? When have services led to sufficient behavior change that self sufficiency is possible, although development and

adjustment are not ideal? An emphasis on *dependency reduction* as a goal of services has emerged to reflect this line of thinking in the policies of many state and federal agencies in this country.

When viewed from a perspective of dependency reduction, the emphasis on paid work as a central goal of the transition process deserves further discussion. Parmenter argues that while employment is indeed desirable, it is neither a necessary nor a sufficient goal of the transition process for two reasons: because high youth unemployment makes it unavailable, and because it is too narrow a goal to encompass valued aspects of adult living. Each of these reasons is discussed briefly below.

While Parmenter's analysis parallels the conventional tendency of economists to attribute high youth unemployment to macroeconomic policy, there is an increasing focus on the role of states, cities, and local governments in economic development to expand the jobs available within their boundaries (O'Neill, 1985). States increasingly are looking beyond traditional public works projects to the entire array of human service programs, asking how social services such as job training, welfare, and other programs can be used as investments in economic development. From this perspective it seems far less appealing to argue that fewer available jobs should lead to a shift in social services to non-vocational activities.

The proper response to job shortages is knot a retreat from employment-related goals, but rather an alternative design of services to meet the dual function of service provision and local economic development. This might involve, for example, combining job training across recipient groups in a way that fosters entrepreneurship, or experimenting with new combinations of service, subsidy, and employer incentives to foster job creation by existing employers. The supported employment initiative in the United States offers the possibility of such experimentation on a limited scale, by shifting emphasis from *preparation for* employment to *support in* employment. Support could conceivably be provided in ways that increased both the incentives for an employer and his or her capacity to generate additional employment for the community.

The difficulty goes even further. Parmenter's assumption that non-vocational services are needed because the economy is not strong enough to generate the needed jobs for youth with disabilities bases itself in a somewhat different, but equally problematic, distinction between economic and social policy. An economy that cannot generate jobs cannot be expected to generate the wealth required for the non-vocational services that Parmenter envisions should be available on an as-needed basis. To use the lack of jobs as an argument for non-vocational services misses the point. A healthy economy is just as essential for service provision as it is for job creation.

Parmenter's second argument against work as the critical outcome of transition is similar to that made by Halpern (1985). Parmenter argues that

work is only a part of successful adult living for adults with disabilities; a part that can be replaced by other activities and government support. What is missing in the analysis is how the objectives of government services fit with this larger social goal for persons with disabilities. How can limited government resources be best used to promote the desired quality of life? As Parmenter himself suggests, the quality of adult life can be greatly affected by the presence and quality of a supportive social network around an individual, by his or her employment, by financial subsidies, and by the provision of direct services. While different combinations of these four contributors may produce equivalent results in terms of quality of life, they represent very different public costs. An individual who enjoys a satisfactory quality of life while depending primarily on employment and social networks represents a much lower public cost than does someone who achieves the same status through income subsidies and government funded services. It seems quite reasonable, therefore, that government programs to assist in the transition from school to working life should emphasize employment outcomes as a primary objective, as was recommended by Will (1984). This, indeed, represents the route toward the quality of adult life that produces the least dependence on government.

What Kind of Services Promote Transition?

Parmenter's analysis of services during the transition period follows the general framework set forth by Will (1984). He includes secondary education, post-school services and employment, and follows her distinction among persons who require generic services, short term services, and ongoing services to make the transition. Like Will, he avoids defining a separate "transition" service, focusing instead on the nature and quality of existing school and adult services.

If an appropriate purpose of government services is to reduce dependency, then services should be provided that are effective in developing skills required for work and independent living. At the same time programs should be provided in a way that fosters the development of social networks and employment relationships supportive of adult living that is as independent as possible of government services. Parmenter's recommendations for service improvements deal much more completely with the first of these needs than with the second. For example, he calls for reevaluation of the curriculum and procedures used in mainstreamed high school classes, but ignores the problems of isolation created by segregated schooling of adolescents with more severe disabilities. Similarly, the post school services envisioned for persons who need ongoing support appear only in the framework of existing sheltered workshops and adult training center models. The result of these services, of course, is segregation from potential friends and employers in the community at large.

The concept of supported employment, which developed in conjunction with the transition initiative in this country, provides an alternative to segregated day programs. Essentially, supported employment involves paid employment in an integrated work setting with ongoing support. In effect, the public funds now spent to prepare an individual for independent employment—a goal that seems never to be reached by most persons with severe disabilities in adult day programs—are used instead to provide support in the context of working. Although not discussed by Parmenter, the supported employment concept has also been encouraged for Australia in the report of a comprehensive review of that country's programs for persons with disabilities (Grimes, 1985). As an alternative to adult training centers and sheltered workshops, the report suggests, "supported employment could be provided through options such as enclaves in open industry, crew labor models involving cleaning or groups maintenance crews, worker co-operatives, separate small businesses, and peer support which involves paying a non-disabled co-worker to take on specific supervision and training responsibilities." (p.37) If publicly funded services are to invest in development of an individual toward his or her potential and at the same time foster the development of social networks and employment opportunities that reduce dependence on services, then alternatives to segregated services are needed that allow the individual to form relationships with and demonstrate competence to potential friends and employers.

Summary

Parmenter provides a broad and up-to-date discussion from the perspective of an educator who is committed to developing and improving services. His comparison of existing services with alternatives that reflect current research and values serves as eloquent advocacy for improved transition programs, advocacy which is just as appropriate for this country as for Australia. However, implementation of his recommendations requires attention to policy problems that are not fully addressed in the monograph. As one investigates the issues of what role government services can play in promoting transition success, and how service delivery ideals are compromised in the allocation of scarce government resources, the puzzle of promoting effective transition becomes at once broader and more constrained. Planning for effective transition for youth with disabilities involves expanding attention beyond clinical services to the combined effects of services, subsidies, employer incentives, and larger economic policies. At the same time, the goals of transition from a government policy perspective necessarily are somewhat narrower than those that can be defined on the basis of individual aspirations and service delivery expectations. By centering government programs on employment objectives, the dependency of persons with disabilities may be reduced.

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COMMENTARY:

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This monograph is a well-written exposition on the state-of-the-art and need for transitional services and programs for students with disabilities in Australia. It is written by Dr. Trevor R. Parmenter who has many years of distinguished teaching and research experience on the subject. He is the foremost authority in that country on transition and it has been my pleasure to work directly with Dr. Parmenter on several occasions when I was in Australia.

A basic tenet of the concept of successful transition that is presented in this publication is the necessity of a society to accept its disabled citizens on a full-fledged, first class basis. The bridge begins, as Parmenter conveys, with adherence to the principles of normalization, independent living, and self-determination....three social/vocational movements that gained particular attention and promotion during the civil rights movement for disabled persons in the seventies.

The need for society, Australian and others, to let its disabled citizens into its mainstream undergirds the basic theme of Parmenter's approach to a successful transition approach. Transition is conceptualized as beginning early in the schools and as having to include social and interpersonal skills training concurrent with vocational preparation. The need to consider the social context in which the person will live and work, including critical support and social networking, is also highlighted in the publication.

The author recognizes that there are many who, in light of the unemployment problem that exists in this country, question full employment as a realistic goal for all disabled persons. One suggestion is that we look for alternatives to traditional employment. Parmenter questions, as many others would: "why should disabled persons be disproportionately and more significantly, unemployed than the non-disabled?" This is a good question in view of substantial past research which has clearly depicted that most disabled persons are capable of successful employment if they are given adequate vocational preparation.

The problems associated with building the bridges from school to working life in Australia are about the same as in the United States. A very major problem is those individuals for whom disabled persons and their parents depend upon...educators and other service providers, employers, and the general public. Some of the major needs to build adequate bridges which are identified by Parmenter include the following: 1) a functional curriculum which includes career education in the early grades and reduces esoteric academic requirements; 2) earlier and more substantial inter-agency involvement with the schools; 3) life-long planning services for the parents;

4) better inservice and preservice preparation of professionals to conduct transitional programs; 5) more opportunity for the person with a disability to be involved substantively in his or her planning; and 6) a research effort that will help determine impact and changes needed. The similarity to what is needed today in the United States is indeed remarkable.

An interesting question that should be posed by concerned readers is "Why haven't we (as well as the Australians) responded better to the problems identified in the monograph if they also basically exist in the United States?" Many if not all of these problems have been promulgated by Americans who have sought educational and rehabilitation reform here! Is our system so bureaucratically endowed with stumbling blocks that it cannot be responsive...or what? We Americans really need to address the problem(s) and find solutions or continue with the old cliche that "we're working on it! " How much longer can we be "working on it"?

The author also questions whether or not anything has really changed for disabled persons over the past decade or so. Although integration or the mainstreaming of students is a reality for many, are they really any better off? It does not appear that they are any more successful as adults or obtaining reasonable equality of educational access. In Australia, their unemployment rate is twice that of the non-disabled and if they are in sheltered workshops, they receive little training that will prepare them for competitive employment. Generally, communities are ill-prepared to accept group homes or other residential alternatives. Employment opportunities are limited.

There certainly is no question that much remains to be done in both Australia and the United States if there is to be the full integration of persons with disabilities into the community and workplace. This scholarly document provides a blueprint for those interested in becoming responsive and designing effective transition programs. It is the most comprehensive and useful work that I know of on the subject. It applies as well to the needs of Americans with special needs. I for one am very appreciative of the work that Dr. Parmenter has put into this document and the support of the world rehabilitation fund for its development and dissemination.

If the total rehabilitation of students with disabilities is to really occur, we must develop earlier and more collaborative programs between education, rehabilitation, other community agencies, and the private sector. We must also give more consideration to involving the student/client and parents in the planning and be sure we are meeting their needs, not ours. Agencies cannot continue to operate in the type of non-responsive isolation of the past. We have the technological know-how to meet the needs of almost every person in need of rehabilitative services. It is now a question of will....Do we have the will to do what we know will be effective?

COMMENTARY:

Michael Peterson, Mississippi State University

In reviewing Dr. Parmenter's monograph it is clear that Australia deals with many of the same issues related to transition from school to work as exist in the United States. I would like to focus my comments on a few of these issues that permeate the monograph and appear to have special relevance to our country.

1. *Curriculum content in special education and transition training programs.*

An on-going problem for both school-age and adult service agencies for severely disabled persons is the need for a functional curriculum that focuses on skills needed to function effectively at home, in the community, and at work. Such a curriculum should be holistic and deal with the whole person in terms of skills required in outcome environments. Special education curricula in both Australia and this country do not have such a functional orientation. Unfortunately, even adult programs that focus more on functional skills have often paid too little attention to really understanding the nature of skills required in the community. Interagency involvement in curriculum design is critical to facilitate joint understandings of needed training content and methods.

2. *Integrated education (mainstreaming) versus appropriate curriculum content.*

In Australia, as here, a major issue for those who advocate for the integration of disabled persons into the community is the question of how this should best occur. Clearly, training needs to focus on specific skills needed for community adjustment. However, since these skills are not well taught in the regular school curriculum one is often left with an either/or choice which does not appear at all desirable—that is, either a curriculum whose content is functional or integration of disabled students into the regular academic program. The same issues occur, though with less intensity, in many adult generic programs. The key, as Parmenter notes, is to examine the outcomes of programs in terms of community integration and enhancement of the quality of life of the individual.

3. *Process of instruction and learning: community-based or facility/classroom-based.*

A similar issue and concern relates to how and where training is done. Given the learning difficulties of severely mentally disabled individuals, training in the actual target environment has increasingly been seen as the most viable. However, this process almost inevitably demands a special training program from that received by non-disabled students. Additionally,

as Parmenter points out, many students with milder disabilities may benefit from work adjustment in rehabilitation facilities and vocational education classes. In fact, such programs may be the most effective method of training.

4. *Coordination of agency services*

In Australia, and in our country, effective coordination of agencies is critical to effective transition programs. In both countries effective coordination systems are limited and usually rest with the initiative of local personnel.

5. *Development of individual transition plans*

Individual transition plans should be developed, according to Parmenter, in early secondary school that identify goals, needed services, and agencies that should be involved. This is a useful standard for the United States, as well, though minimally implemented to date. A key concern for personnel development is training professionals how to carry out effective staffings and other procedures by which such plans may be developed with meaningful input of educators, agency personnel, parents, and students.

6. *Involvement of parents and consumers*

Parents, and especially disabled students themselves, should be the prime decision-makers of transition planning processes. Again, parent training and support systems are important to assist them in facilitating the transition to adult roles of their disabled children. Particular attention, additionally, needs to be paid to methods of involving handicapped students, particularly those in secondary school, in the decision-making that effects their lives.

7. *The role of sheltered workshops and rehabilitation facilities*

Rehabilitation facilities have played key roles over the last twenty years in the United States in providing transitional work adjustment training to handicapped students. Simultaneously, sheltered workshops have developed which have provided a mix of transitional training and long-term sheltered employment for more severely mentally disabled individuals.

In Australia, as in the United States, such programs have been underfunded and in the process of building from scratch a viable business base and yet expected to provide all services to handicapped persons—employment, training, job placement, recreational and leisure opportunities. As Parmenter points out, such programs have been the only ones providing any transitional services at all to this population since schools have had little focus on this area and other generic programs have not seen themselves as able to handle severely disabled persons. Consequently, it is no surprise that sheltered workshops have had difficulty meeting all their assigned goals.

However, rehabilitation facilities and sheltered workshops are presently in the process of examining their role in our country. A key question is: should workshops focus on development of in-house business capability as a

way of increasing the wages and training opportunities or should they focus their resources on training in community sites only. Perhaps the best response is to provide a variety of options. Yet this is difficult given funding difficulties. The key is to focus program resources on those approaches that most cost-effectively facilitate community integration. However, real information concerning what is best is yet limited, so that program administrators must play their best hunches. It should not be surprising that some of the most effective community-based programs in the country have been developed by rehabilitation facility staff using work adjustment and training techniques shown to be effective within the facility.

8. *Outcomes: employment versus non-work or unpaid employment*

While public discussions in the United States appear to most often identify paid employment as the primary acceptable outcome for severely disabled people, the design of most school curricula and some adult day care programs appears to put minimal emphasis on employment as a viable outcome. Others have felt integrating the community to be so important that unpaid work opportunities have been advocated. Increasingly, we are identifying methods of training severely disabled persons in community jobs and providing on-going support services as necessary. The key question presently being addressed is whether the resources and support will be provided to make this a reality.

Another related issue, of course, that Parmenter discusses, is the availability of employment. The argument is too easily made that since employment for non-disabled persons (who are presumed in the argument to be more employable) is limited, how can we expect to employ severely disabled persons who may have significant learning and behavioral difficulties? Parmenter states, I believe appropriately, that disabled persons should have the opportunity to participate in employment to the same degree as non-disabled persons.

9. *Incentives and disincentives to employment*

The place that outcome decisions are really played out in both of our countries are political decisions concerning whether to provide transfer payments and/or provide incentives for employment. This issue has been much debated in recent years and some moves have been made to reduce disincentives. Additional efforts in both Australia and the United States in this area appear critical if true community integration and employment are to occur.

10. *Personnel preparation*

Preparation of personnel to deliver transitional services is a key to addressing many of the issues discussed above. Special educators, particularly, need an understanding of "future oriented," functional curricula. However, interdisciplinary training is critical as well. Various agencies need

some common framework for discussion and program development so that they can effectively work together. Both in-service and pre-service, interdisciplinary university programs, are critical if this is to occur. Personnel in rehabilitation, vocational education, special education, mental health, higher education, manpower, and others must work together in state and federal agencies and at universities to address the issue of effective personnel development.

While most of the key issues related to transition were well addressed, I saw too little emphasis upon the following services that appear important in transition: (1) vocational assessment; and (2) vocational education. While problems with formal vocational evaluation programs serving severely disabled persons effectively have been apparent, this service is necessarily at the base of making transitional planning decisions. The question is not whether vocational assessment will be done, but whether it will be done well and be of use. Thirdly, it was less than clear how the regular system for vocational-technical training in Australia is structured. In our country, increased emphasis has been placed upon the provision of systematic support services in community colleges and vocational-technical schools for disabled persons. Such training is an integral and crucial part of the transitional service delivery system.

Both Australia and the United States have many problems to solve in providing nationwide, systematic programs for transition from school to work. Yet significant efforts have been made. We have learned some new things and perhaps are moving forward to developing and implementing a service delivery system where we can all work together to assist those students whom we serve.

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